

Tandem catalysis for CO₂ conversion to higher alcohols: A reviewYiming He^{a,1}, Fabian H. Müller^{b,1}, Regina Palkovits^{b,c}, Feng Zeng^{a,*}, Chalachew Mebrahtu^{b,*}^a State Key Laboratory of Materials-Oriented Chemical Engineering, College of Chemical Engineering, Nanjing Tech University, Nanjing 211816, Jiangsu, China^b Institute for Technical and Macromolecular Chemistry, RWTH Aachen University, Worringerweg 2, 52074 Aachen, Germany^c Institute for Sustainable Hydrogen Economy, Forschungszentrum Jülich, Am Brainery Park 1, 52428 Jülich, Germany

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, due to the substantial emission of CO₂, global warming has become more severe, and there is an urgent need to develop technologies to reduce greenhouse gas CO₂ emissions. Converting CO₂ into higher alcohols is a promising process, as it not only produces valuable chemicals but also utilizes CO₂ as feedstock. Currently, most reported catalytic approaches are based on direct hydrogenation of CO₂ to synthesize higher alcohols. However, the synthesis of higher alcohols involves multiple steps, requiring catalysts with multiple functional sites and their synergistic interactions are crucial. Nevertheless, controlling catalysts at the nanoscale poses challenges, hindering the design of efficient multi-site catalysts. An alternative approach worth considering is to perform a tandem of multiple well-established catalytic reactions (e.g., methanol synthesis, CO₂-Fischer-Tropsch-Synthesis, RWGS, syngas conversion, olefin hydration, etc.) to indirectly achieve the conversion of CO₂ into higher alcohols, instead of direct CO₂ hydrogenation. Therefore, in this review, these alternative strategies of higher alcohols synthesis are discussed, and their potential is evaluated. First, thermodynamic analysis, the selective adjustment strategies, and the current challenges faced for direct CO₂ hydrogenation are introduced. Then, physical integration of multiple catalysts as a feasible strategy to endow the catalyst with multifunctional properties is discussed. Subsequently, several feasible routes of CO₂ conversion into higher alcohols and the advanced catalysts employed for each pathway are summarized. Finally, merits and limitations of the different approaches are provided, emphasizing the great potential the tandem reaction strategy holds for the efficient synthesis of higher alcohols by CO₂ conversion.

1. Introduction

The excessive use of fossil fuels since the beginning of the industrial revolution in the early 19th century has led to steadily increasing anthropological emissions of greenhouse gases, such as carbon dioxide (CO₂). This increase of the atmospheric CO₂-concentration is strongly correlated to the rise of the global average temperature over the last century [1–4]. In order to curb further increases of CO₂ emissions, different countries have proposed different strategies. China, for example, has adopted the so-called "double carbon" strategy, in which the country strives to reach peak CO₂-emissions by 2030 and aims to achieve carbon neutrality by 2060 [5]. Similarly, the European Union strives to reach carbon neutrality by the middle of the 21st century [6, 7]. To mitigate and reduce CO₂ emissions, various methods of CO₂ fixation have attracted wide interest from researchers. This includes, among others, CO₂ capture, storage, and utilization technologies (CCS

and CCU, respectively), which play a crucial role in mitigating the greenhouse effect [8]. Here, CO₂ utilization technologies enable the valorization of CO₂ into valuable chemicals while simultaneously reducing CO₂ emissions effectively.

The conversion of CO₂ into valuable chemicals by its hydrogenation has been extensively studied. Until recently, C₁-products such as methane, formic acid, methanol, or carbon monoxide (CO) have been the focal point of CO₂ hydrogenation research [9–12]. However, the focus started to shift towards the synthesis of C₂₊-products, e.g., higher alcohols (HA), as they provide several advantages over C₁-products. For example, higher alcohols can either directly serve as fuels themselves or can be employed as fuel additives to increase the fuels' octane number and thus improve combustion properties [13,14]. Compared to methanol, ethanol exhibits lower corrosion potential, a lower vapor pressure, better solubility with liquid hydrocarbons, improved water tolerance, and higher overall energy density [15]. Apart from transport sector

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applications, higher alcohols are widely used as raw materials or intermediates to produce surfactants, solvents, detergents, antiseptics, cosmetics, and pharmaceuticals [16]. Moreover, the low-temperature synthesis of higher alcohols is thermodynamically more favorable than methanol synthesis (MS) due to its lower Gibbs free energy of reaction and a larger equilibrium constant value (Chapter 2, Table 1, entry 3 to 6) [17]. Currently, higher alcohols are produced either by fermentation of corn and sugar cane or by hydration of alkenes.[18–20] While the former sparks ethics-controversies (food vs. fuel), the latter still relies heavily on fossil feedstocks. In addition, synthesis gas (syngas) conversion to higher alcohols and the hydrogenation of acetic acid based on methanol carbonylation to higher alcohols have also been realized in small-scale applications [21–23]. Consequently, the use of CO₂ as an abundant feedstock for higher alcohol synthesis (HAS) represents a very promising approach for replacing fossil fuels and potential food sources in the production of various chemicals.

Currently, the majority of research reports focus on the direct hydrogenation of CO₂ to higher alcohols, i.e., the conversion of CO₂ over a single (possibly multifunctional) catalyst. To achieve high CO₂ conversion and selectivity to higher alcohols, selective catalysts must possess various functionalities such as CO₂ activation, adsorption ability of intermediates, modulation of surface-active species, carbon chain growth, and low selectivity to by-products. In recent years, a wide variety of such catalysts have been developed for the synthesis of higher alcohols from CO₂ hydrogenation [24,25], including noble metal-based [26–32], Mo-based [33–36], Cu-based [37–41], and Co-based [42–47] systems. In this endeavor, various strategies were employed to modulate the product selectivity: (i) strong metal-support interaction (SMSI) on metal oxide supports [46,48–50], (ii) the utilization of highly tunable nano-frameworks such as metal organic frameworks (MOFs), covalent organic frameworks (COFs), or porous organic polymers (POPs)[41, 51–53], (iii) the adjustment of catalyst nanostructures to alter their product selectivity [26,27,44,54,55], or (iv) modification of the catalyst selectivity by adjusting the crystal phases of the oxide support [45,56, 57].

Until now, a multitude of reviews have provided insightful overviews on the current state of research in the direct hydrogenation of CO₂ to higher alcohols [24,25,58,59,60]. However, most of the current catalysts suffer from insufficient CO₂ conversion, poor stability, low selectivity, or yield of higher alcohols. In addition, a deep mechanistic understanding of these catalysts is often scarce due to their complex metal-promoter-support structure. Hence, it's believed that catalyst design for the synthesis of higher alcohols by CO₂ hydrogenation may be simplified by decoupling the complex multi-step reaction mechanism into multiple, well-researched individual reactions [58,61–63]. Generally, the coupling of relatively mature processes such as reverse water gas shift (RWGS)[64–66], CO₂-Fischer-Tropsch-Synthesis (FTS) to olefins [67–70], methanol synthesis [12,71–73], CO₂ hydrogenation to acetic acid [74–76], syngas conversion [77–79], olefins hydration or hydroformylation [80–84], and acetic acid to higher alcohols reaction [84–87], may consolidate the understanding of reaction mechanisms

and thus benefit the design of multifunctional materials in the future.

Therefore, in this review, a systematic discussion of the above-mentioned aspects is provided. The review starts by presenting the thermodynamics and first mechanistic insights of HAS from CO₂ hydrogenation. Here, common challenges in HAS such as the suppression of hydrocarbon-formation or sufficient C-C-coupling activity are addressed. Subsequently, an overview of catalyst systems for the direct CO₂ hydrogenation to higher alcohols is provided. This chapter is divided into (i) Rh-based catalysts, (ii) Cu-based catalysts, (iii) Co-based catalysts, and (iv) Mo-based catalysts. Then the review focuses on a multitude of pathways to synthesize HAS via an indirect conversion of CO₂ through the integration of various reactions in series. Here, the basic reactions of a possible tandem catalyst system are introduced before combining them into an integrated process for HAS. The various routes for CO₂-based synthesis of higher alcohols shown in Scheme 1 are therefore the core of this review. In summary, we believe that this review will help to further deepen mechanistic understanding of higher alcohols synthesis as well as inspire the development of novel strategies in future catalyst design.

2. Thermodynamics and mechanistic insights

To overcome the above-mentioned challenges, careful considerations of the thermodynamic equilibrium can provide valuable information.[88–91]. Basic thermodynamic parameters of chemical reactions such as the standard Gibbs free energy change ($\Delta G_{298\text{ K}}$), the standard enthalpy change ($\Delta H_{298\text{ K}}$), and the standard equilibrium constant ($K_{298\text{ K}}$), may lead to guiding suggestions in catalyst design. Jia et al. performed a thorough thermodynamic analysis of the CO₂ hydrogenation to higher alcohols [17]. Table 1 displays the aforementioned thermodynamic parameters for the most important reactions of the process. Accordingly, at 298 K, methane is the thermodynamically favorable product due to its low standard Gibbs free energy change (−113.5 kJ/mol) and the highest reaction equilibrium constant (7.79×10^{19}). Its vast excess over competing reactions such as carbon monoxide (CO) or alcohol formation indicates the irreversibility of hydrocarbon formation under the present conditions. The prevention of excessive CO₂ reduction to methane is therefore one key challenge and efficient catalysts must hold a high kinetic barrier for CH₄ formation. In our previous study, we found that lowering the temperature, increasing the pressure, and raising the H₂/CO₂ ratio can thermodynamically reduce methane formation [88]. Thermodynamically, lower temperatures inhibit the endothermic formation of carbon monoxide via the RWGS (Entry 2) reaction while alcohols formation favors lower reaction temperatures. Higher pressures generally favor the contractive alcohol formation over the isovolumetric RWGS reaction. Consequently, the key challenge in the formation of higher alcohols is to balance energy-demanding CO₂ activation and C-C-bond coupling against competing reactions e.g., CO₂ methanation, methanol formation, and the RWGS reaction. Based on the above analysis, the greatest challenge is to design catalysts with the ability to simultaneously activate CO₂ and

Table 1

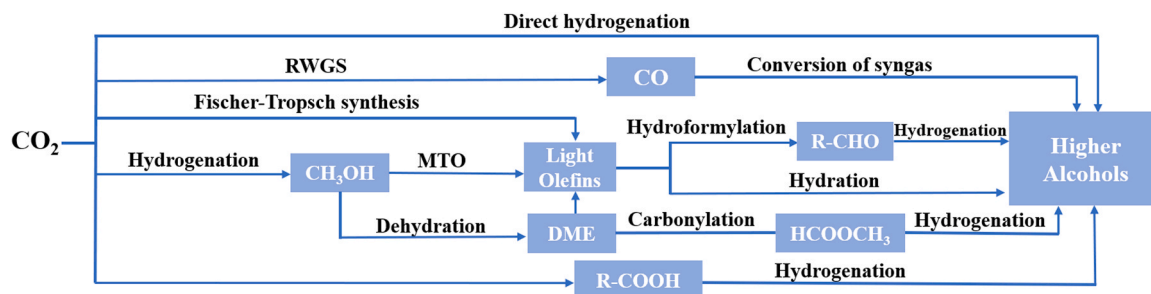
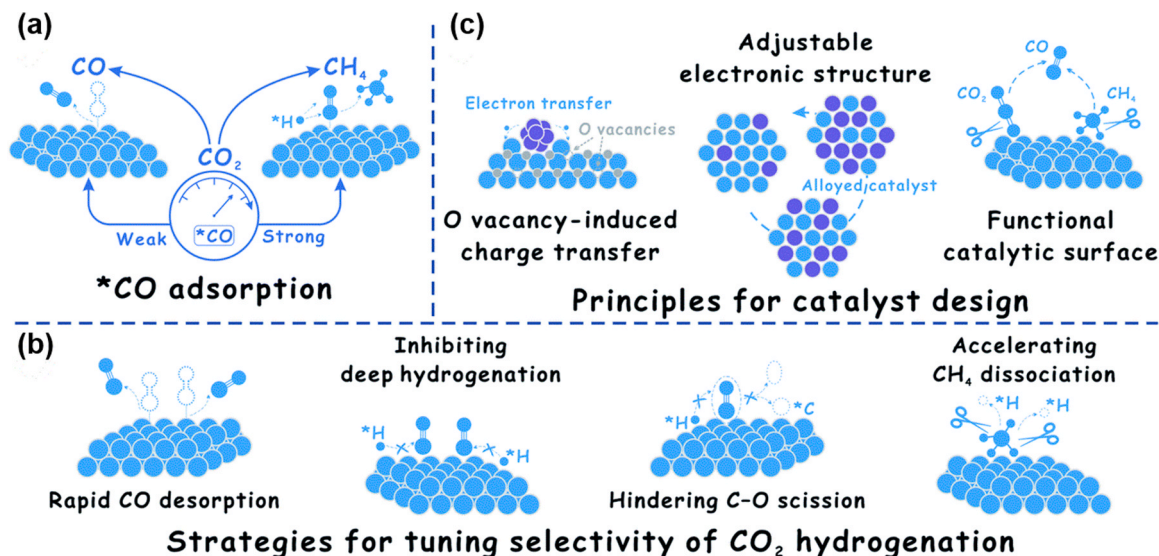
$\Delta G_{298\text{ K}}$, $\Delta H_{298\text{ K}}$, and $K_{298\text{ K}}$ of main reactions in the synthesis of higher alcohols by CO₂ hydrogenation.[17].

Entry	Reaction formula	$\Delta G_{298\text{ K}}^a$ (kJ/mol)	$\Delta H_{298\text{ K}}^b$ (kJ/mol)	$K_{298\text{ K}}^c$
1	$\text{CO}_2 + 4\text{H}_2 \rightleftharpoons \text{CH}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	− 113.5	− 165.0	7.79×10^{19}
2	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2 \rightleftharpoons \text{CO} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	28.6	41.2	9.67×10^{-6}
3	$\text{CO}_2 + 3\text{H}_2 \rightleftharpoons \text{CH}_3\text{OH} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$	3.5	− 49.3	2.45×10^{-1}
4	$\text{CO}_2 + 3\text{H}_2 \rightleftharpoons \frac{1}{2}\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH} + \frac{3}{2}\text{H}_2\text{O}$	− 32.4	− 86.7	4.70×10^5
5	$\text{CO}_2 + 3\text{H}_2 \rightleftharpoons \frac{1}{3}\text{n-C}_3\text{H}_7\text{OH} + \frac{5}{3}\text{H}_2\text{O}$	− 39.9	− 94.6	9.82×10^6
6	$\text{CO}_2 + 3\text{H}_2 \rightleftharpoons \frac{1}{4}\text{n-C}_4\text{H}_9\text{OH} + \frac{7}{4}\text{H}_2\text{O}$	− 43.2	− 98.3	3.73×10^7

^a Standard Gibbs free energy change;

^b standard enthalpy change;

^c standard equilibrium constant.

Scheme 1. Different pathways for CO₂-based higher alcohols synthesis.Fig. 1. (a-c) Strategies for tuning the selectivity of CO₂ hydrogenation. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [96].

grow carbon chains as well as avoid excessive hydrogenation to hydrocarbons.

As indicated in Table 1, the CO₂ hydrogenation reaction system comprises a wide variety of reactants, intermediates, and products, Fig. 1 gives an overview of these species. The main products from CO₂ activation are CO from the RWGS reaction and CH₄ from CO₂ methanation (Table 1 Entry 1 and 2). In the next step, CO can couple with intermediates such as *CH_x, *CH_xO, *HCOO, etc. to form C₂₊ oxygenated compounds (e.g., aldehydes, alcohols, carboxylic acids, etc.), but can also be dissociated to CH_x to form long chain hydrocarbons. For example, Cu-based systems often display relatively high activity in the RWGS reaction. Simultaneously, Cu-based systems show only weak CO-adsorption and therefore only rarely exhibit excessive reduction to hydrocarbons [92,93]. Co, Fe, Ni, and some other metals, on the other hand, are more prone to break C-O bonds, ultimately leading to methanation [94,95]. This vividly illustrates the importance of tailored active sites for controlling product selectivity. Wang et al. summarized the strategies for tuning the product selectivity in CO₂ hydrogenation, as shown in Fig. 1(a) [96]. The authors concluded that the adsorption strength of *CO intermediates is a key factor, which directly determines whether CO continues to participate in the reaction or terminates to form methane. Fig. 1(c) shows the formation of oxygen vacancies on easily reducible metal oxide supports during the construction of SMSI. The oxygen vacancies play an important role in the activation of CO₂ and can modulate metal-*CO interactions to adjust the product selectivity. According to the authors, as depicted in Fig. 1(b), the catalyst design principles should meet: (i) accelerated CO adsorption to avoid dissociation to CH_x, (ii) inhibition of deep hydrogenation to

hydrocarbons, (iii) prevention C-O bond-breakage and (iv) accelerated dissociation of methane. Unfortunately, these theoretical criteria are still subject to many difficulties in practical operation, wherefore the modulation of product selectivity is a major challenge in current catalyst design.

Among the numerous studies reported, Ding et al. were able to supplement their exceptional catalytic results in HAS from CO₂ hydrogenation by comprehensive theoretical calculations on the reaction mechanism. The authors prepared Cu@Na-Beta catalysts, which were synthesized by embedding Cu nanoparticles into a Na-Beta zeolite [40]. Accordingly, an ethanol-space time yield (STY) of 8.65 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ and a selectivity to ethanol of 79.0% were achieved, with it being the only organic product. Compared with the Cu/Na-Beta catalyst prepared by conventional impregnation, H₂-temperature-programmed desorption (TPD), X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS), and Cu LMM Auger spectra results showed that the Cu particles in the Cu@Na-Beta catalysts possessed more intimate interactions with the Na-Beta zeolite framework. According to the infrared (IR) and nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectroscopy results, the desorption potential energy barrier of the surface-adsorbed CH₃COO* -intermediate is too high for desorption, which ultimately leads to its further hydrogenation to ethanol. TPD-experiments of various reaction intermediates on Cu@Na-Beta showed immediate decomposition of methanol, formic acid, and acetic acid to CO_x upon heating, while ethanol readily desorbed from the catalyst, leading to a higher selectivity. To further explore the mechanism of ethanol formation, DFT calculations were performed on the (211) Cu facet as perfect structure, with Cu vacancy or O-doped at the edge (Fig. 2 (a)). Fig. 2 (b), (c) and (d) shows the comparison of the decomposition of

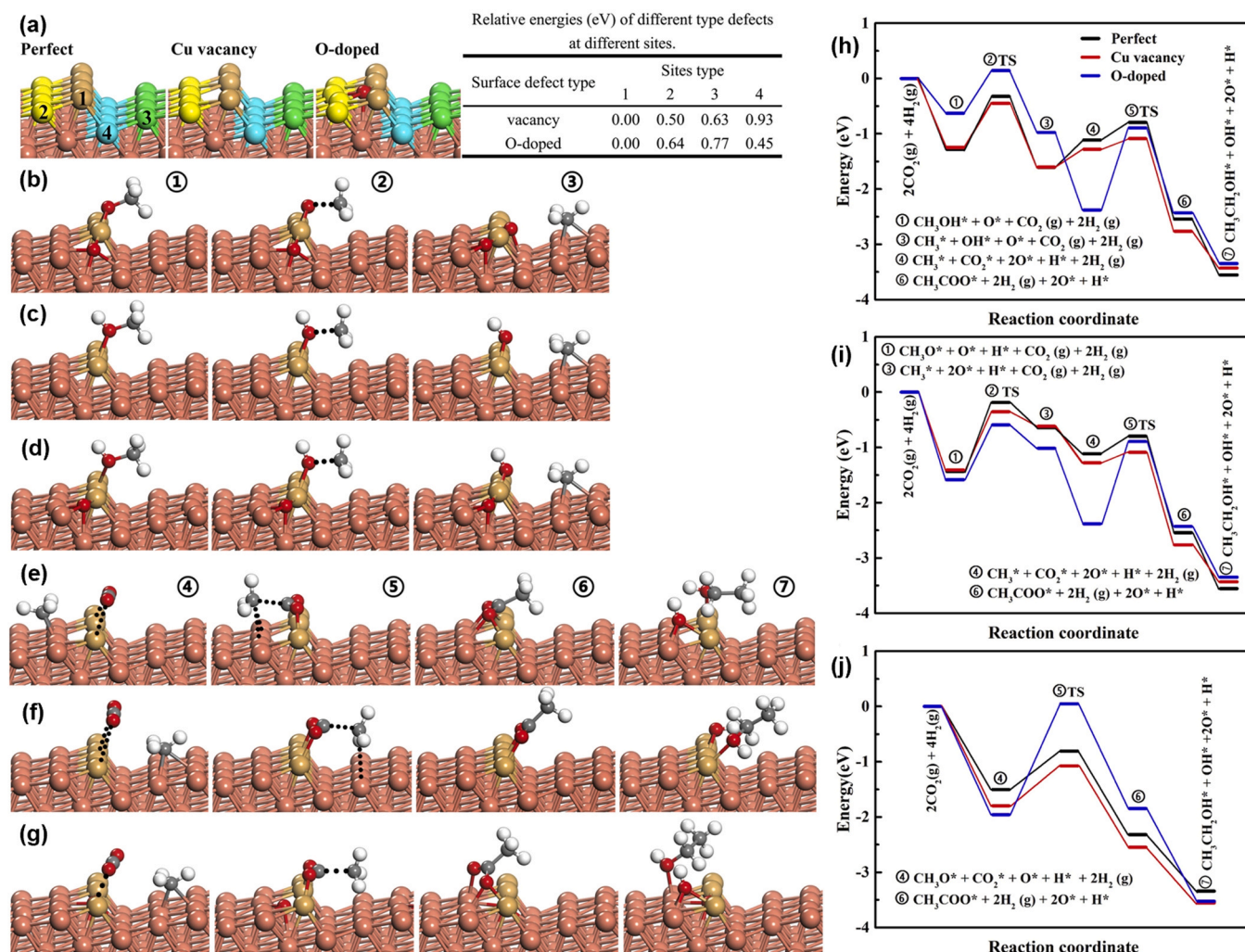


Fig. 2. Reaction Pathway of CO_2 to $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ and Reaction Energetics Calculated by DFT. (a) Illustrations of perfect, Cu-vacancy, and O-doped surfaces on the edges. The differently colored atoms represent different sites on first layer (yellowish-brown for site type 1, yellow for site type 2, green for site type 3, and blue for site type 4). Dark brown sphere is for Cu at lower layers). (b–d) Illustrations of the initial state, transition state, and final state of methyl formation from CH_3O^* on (b) O-doped Cu(221) and from CH_3OH on (c) Cu vacancy defect surface and (d) O-doped surface. (e–j) Illustrations of the initial state, transition state, and final state of $\text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_3$ reaction paths on (e) Cu vacancy defect surface, (f) perfect surface, (g) O-doped surface and potential energy surfaces for the reaction of (h) $\text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{OH} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_3 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$, (i) $\text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_3 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$, and (j) $\text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_3\text{O} \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$. Dark brown sphere, Cu; red sphere, O; gray sphere, C; white sphere, H; yellowish-brown, Cu on edge.

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methoxide and methanol, i.e., $\text{CH}_3\text{O}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_3^* + \text{O}^*$ and $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}^* \rightarrow \text{CH}_3^* + \text{OH}^*$. Simulations indicate that the C–O bond breakage of CH_3OH on the oxygen-doped copper (221) surface has a lower energy barrier than the desorption of CH_3OH , wherefore methanol is easily converted to methyl. These results align with the complete absence of methanol from the product fraction. Moreover, Fig. 2(e), (f) and (g) displays the routes of $\text{CO}_2 + \text{CH}_3^* + 2\text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}^*$ and $\text{CO}_2^* + \text{CH}_3\text{O}^* + 2\text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{OH}^* + \text{O}^* + \text{OH}^*$. Combined with the potential data provided in Fig. 2(h), (i) and (j), it can be deduced that the C–C bond is mainly formed by the reaction of CO_2 with CH_3^* rather than methoxide, and the Cu-vacancy containing facet is an effective site for the formation of CH_3COO^* by CO_2^* and CH_3^* , which is ultimately hydrogenated to ethanol.

This example of cooperation between experimental studies and theoretical calculations to support a mechanistic understanding of higher alcohols synthesis exemplifies the complexity of interactions between a multitude of possible intermediates in a dual-functional catalyst. The following chapter will further summarize state-of-the-art research on the direct hydrogenation of CO_2 to alcohols.

3. Direct CO_2 hydrogenation to alcohols

3.1. Various types of catalysts for CO_2 hydrogenation to higher alcohols

The direct catalytic hydrogenation of CO_2 to higher alcohols currently represents the predominant approach in CO_2 -to-higher alcohols research. It does not rely on various catalyst mixing techniques or multistage bed strategies, but employs one single, possibly multifunctional catalyst for the one-step hydrogenation of CO_2 to higher alcohols. Various types of catalyst materials are investigated for this reaction, which can be broadly classified according to the active components into (1) rhodium-based catalysts, (2) copper-based catalysts, (3) cobalt-based catalysts, (4) molybdenum-based catalysts and (5) other types of catalysts.

3.1.1. Rh-based catalysts

Rh-based catalysts originally gained attention for the conversion of syngas to higher alcohols over the last decades.[77,78,97] Rh-catalysts exhibit excellent CO_2 activation capability, namely CO_2 conversion to CO via the RWGS reaction, and subsequent $^*\text{CO}$ intermediate insertion

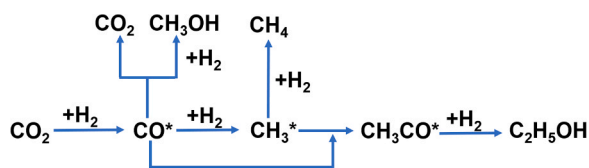


Fig. 3. CO insertion mechanism of CO_2 hydrogenation to ethanol proposed by Kusama et al. [98].

into $^*\text{CH}_x$. This CO insertion mechanism (Fig. 3) was proposed by Kusama et al. [98] Izumi et al. investigated the effect of supports and additives on loaded Rh catalysts and found that $\text{Rh}_{10}\text{Se}/\text{TiO}_2$ catalysts possessed the highest selectivity to higher alcohols (83%) [99], significantly higher than Rh/SiO_2 (1.2%) [100]. Over the years, different promoters were employed to prevent excessive $^*\text{CO}$ dissociation over the highly active Rh-based catalyst systems. Finally, some alkali or transition metals were found to sufficiently inhibit the formation of hydrocarbons.[77] Further studies on promoter effects in SiO_2 -supported KFeRh catalysts by Goryachev et al. reported a suppressing effect of K on CO_2 methanation as well as promotion of carbon-chain growth by Fe [101]. Gong's group synthesized TiO_2 nanorods (TiO_2 NR) supported RhFe catalyst ($\text{RhFeLi}/\text{TiO}_2$ NR). The TiO_2 NR support contributed to the dispersion of Rh nanoparticles, and the abundant hydroxyl groups on TiO_2 NR played an important role in the synthesis of higher alcohols by CO_2 hydrogenation. Accordingly, CO_2 conversion of 15.7% and a higher alcohol selectivity of 31.3% were achieved at 250 °C, 3 MPa and 6000 $\text{mL g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$. The in situ diffuse reflectance infrared spectroscopy (DRIFTS) results indicate that the formation of CHO^* species is the rate-limiting step in CO_2 -to-HA, and that CHO^* -dissociation into CH_x^* is thermodynamically favored over the formation of CO [102,103]. In addition, the abundant hydroxyl groups on the TiO_2 NR surface favored decomposition of the formyl group into CH_3^* , which ultimately promoted the insertion of CO generated from the RWGS reaction to form CH_3CO^* , followed by its hydrogenation to ethanol [26]. Furthermore, Wang et al. investigated an efficient VO_x -promoted Rh-based catalyst ($\text{Rh}-0.3\text{VO}_x/\text{MCM}-41$) which is confined in mesoporous MCM-41 for ethanol production. An ethanol selectivity of 21.2% and CO_2 conversion of 12% could be achieved at 250 °C and 3 MPa. Based on experimental and theoretical results, non-linearly adsorbed CO , formed at the VO_x -Rh interfacial site, can be easily dissociated into the key intermediate $^*\text{CH}_x$. Subsequently, $^*\text{CH}_x$ can be inserted to CO to form CH_3CO^* , which is finally hydrogenated to ethanol [104]. Even though Rh-based catalysts display exceptional activity in CO_2 hydrogenation, their industrial application is hindered by they lack economic viability. Consequently, further research focused on developing non-noble metal-based catalysts.

3.1.2. Cu-based catalysts

Cu-based catalysts are extensively used for methanol synthesis (MS) [71,105–107], and due to the RWGS activity of Cu-based systems [108–110], numerous modified catalysts are used for the synthesis of higher alcohols from syngas [111–114]. Since Cu has the capability of activating CO_2 and is simultaneously good for non-dissociative CO adsorption, modified Cu-based catalysts for CO_2 hydrogenation are a promising class of materials in HAS. However, due to their low affinity to form $^*\text{CH}_x$ intermediates from CO , Cu-based catalysts often require transition metal and alkali metal promoters to improve their C-C coupling activity. In general, transition metals (e.g., Fe, Co) improve CO -dissociation to $^*\text{CH}_x$ and thus enable CH_x - CH_x coupling, while alkali metals can enhance the selectivity to higher alcohols [77,78]. Li et al. evaluated the catalytic performance of a $\text{K}/\text{Cu}-\text{Zn}$ catalyst for the RWGS reaction and CO_2 hydrogenation to alcohols. The catalyst achieved a high CO selectivity of 84.3% and a mixed alcohol selectivity of 7.6%, respectively. [115] Li et al. discovered a synergistic effect of iron in $\text{K}/\text{Cu}-\text{Zn}$ catalysts improving HA selectivity up to 13.5% [116]. Besides,

the Liu group also explored the role of K in Cu-Fe-based catalysts, and found K not only facilitating the RWGS reaction but also modulating the catalyst's ability to dissociate adsorbed and non-dissociated CO , allowing sufficient $^*\text{CH}_x$ to couple with $^*\text{CO}$ to form higher alcohols [117]. An et al. developed unique secondary building units (SBUs) to support bimetallic Cu_2 sites in a synthesized Zn_{12} -MOF for CO_2 hydrogenation to ethanol. Again, different alkali metal promoters were able to fine-tune the local structure of the catalytic sites. [41] Fig. 4(a) shows the enhancement of catalytic activity by different alkali metal promoters and the increase in ethanol selectivity follows the order $\text{Li} < \text{Na} < \text{K} < \text{Cs}$. The best catalytic performance was achieved over the Cs promoted catalyst, exhibiting more than 99% ethanol selectivity at 2 MPa and 100 °C with a turn-over number (TON) of 490. Based on NMR, EXAFS, and XPS characterizations as well as DFT calculations, a more efficient electron donor feature and lower potential barriers for the formation of formyl intermediates could be attributed to the presence of Cs^+ species. The catalytic activity was attributed to a synergistic effect of the close $\mu_2\text{-Cu}\cdots\mu_3\text{-Cu}$ bimetallic sites, which cannot only activate H_2 but also facilitate C-C-coupling between methanol and formyl species with the assistance of alkali metal promoters for the efficient formation of ethanol.

Moreover, Wang et al. employed a comprehensive approach, combining experiments with DFT calculations and Kinetic Monte Carlo (KMC) simulations, to investigate the reaction mechanism of ethanol synthesis via CO_2 hydrogenation on $\text{Cs}/\text{Cu}/\text{ZnO}(0001^-)$ catalyst, as illustrated in Fig. 4(b). The introduction of Cs imparts multifunctional sites with a distinctive structure at the Cu-Cs-ZnO interface, facilitating its interaction with CO_2 . Notably, the Cu-Cs-ZnO interface plays a pivotal role in modulating the strength of its binding to $^*\text{CHO}$. This dual effect not only promotes $^*\text{CHO}$ -formation by the decomposition of HCOOH , but also facilitates the further hydrogenation of $^*\text{CHO}$ to methanol. The adept control exerted by $\text{Cs}/\text{Cu}/\text{ZnO}(0001^-)$ over $^*\text{CHO}$ is instrumental in fostering C-C coupling, culminating in the ultimate formation of ethanol.[118].

3.1.3. Co-based catalysts

Co-based catalysts originate from FTS catalysts [119]. They are well known for their carbon chain growth ability [120] and are widely used in CO hydrogenation as well as syngas conversion reactions [77,121]. However, the inherent ability of metal Co to break C-O bonds leads to easier hydrocarbon synthesis [122,123], which is detrimental to the formation of higher alcohols. Various additives and supports are commonly employed to modify Co-based catalysts and improve the selectivity to higher alcohols. In addition, different types of Co-sites and phases hold a great influence on the performance of the reported catalysts [60]. For example, a $\text{Co}@\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4/\text{C}-\text{N}$ catalyst synthesized by Lian et al. with metallic Co as the main active component resulted in excessive hydrocarbon formation (80.2%) and very low selectivity to higher alcohols (1.2%).[124] Besides, Ouyang et al. investigated the effect of different Co_3O_4 morphologies as a support on the performance of $\text{Pt}/\text{Co}_3\text{O}_4$ catalysts. Due to their easier reducibility, Co_3O_4 nanoplates created a synergistic effect with Co and Pt and the oxygen vacancies of Co_3O_4 itself, reaching a STY_{HA} of 0.56 $\text{mmol g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ and a selectivity to HA of 4.3% at 200 °C and 2 MPa [125].

An et al. developed Ga doped $\text{CoGaAlO}_4/\text{SiO}_2$ catalyst for CO_2 hydrogenation to ethanol, achieving 20.1% ethanol selectivity and 0.3 $\text{mmol g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ STY_{EtOH} at 270 °C, 3 MPa, and 3000 $\text{mL g}_{\text{cat}}^{-1} \text{h}^{-1}$ [126]. The authors attributed the high catalytic activity to the strong interaction between gallium oxide and cobalt, inducing the formation of active $\text{Co}^0\text{-Co}^{\delta+}$ species. The proposed reaction mechanism is provided in Fig. 5. Initially, CO_2 is adsorbed on the catalyst surface, undergoing the RWGS reaction to form a CO intermediate. Simultaneously, CO and H_2 molecules are activated at the $\text{Co}^0\text{-Co}^{\delta+}$ site. The strong dissociation capability of Co^0 cleaves the C-O bond, leading to the formation of alkyl intermediates. The spinel structure, along with $\text{Co}^{\delta+}$ sites, readily performs non-dissociative adsorption of CO^*/HCO^* intermediates. Finally,

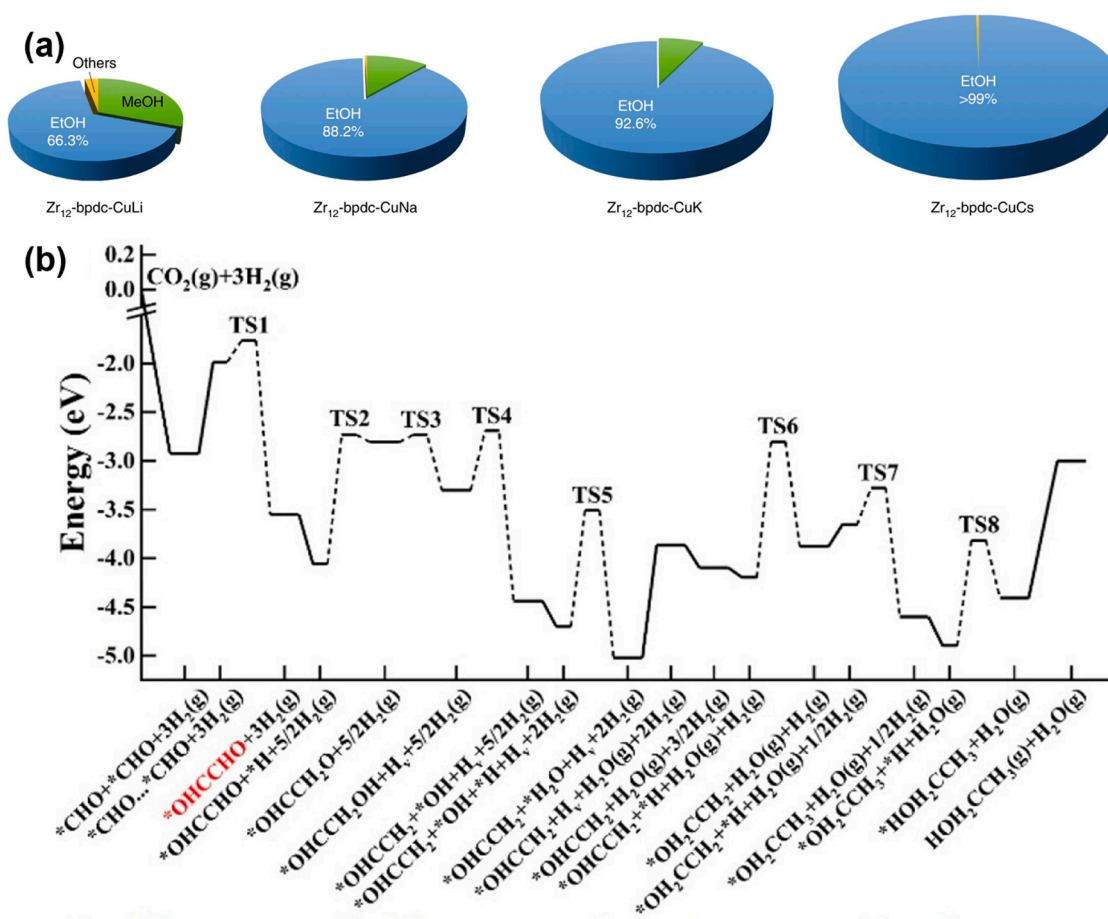


Fig. 4. (a) Selectivity of the catalysts modified with different alkali metals. Reaction conditions: 10 mg of catalysts, H₂/CO₂ = 3, *p* = 2 MPa, Temperature = 100 °C, time = 10 h, 10 mL of anhydrous THF. “TS”, transition state.

(a) Reprinted with permission from Ref.[41] (b) Potential energy diagram for ethanol synthesis starting from *HCO on the Cu/Cs/ZnO(0001⁻) surfaces. (b) Reprinted with permission from Ref.[118].

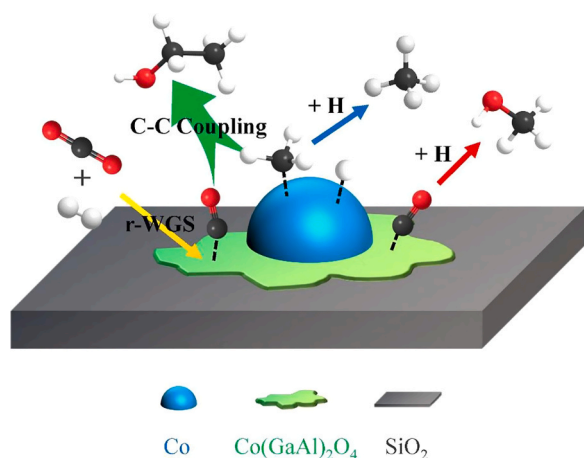


Fig. 5. Plausible mechanism for ethanol synthesis from CO₂ hydrogenation over CoGaAlO₄/SiO₂ catalyst. Reprinted with permission from Ref.[126].

the CH_x* and CO*/HCO* coupling led to ethanol synthesis.

Besides, Wang et al. conducted a study on the selective hydrogenation of CO₂ to ethanol using the non-precious metal catalyst CoAlO_x, which exhibited the best performance at a reduction temperature of 600 °C [42]. At a reaction temperature of 140 °C, the catalyst achieves a

selectivity of 92.1% and a STY_{EtOH} of 0.444 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹. Through operando FTIR experiments, the authors conducted an in-depth investigation into the reaction intermediates over CoAlO_x catalysts. The results revealed *HCOO as a crucial stable intermediate, impeding the further hydrogenation process and consequently suppressing methanol formation. The synergy between surface Co⁰ and CoO on the catalyst promotes the formation of *CH_x intermediates. Subsequently, *CH_x can couple with *HCOO to form acetate, followed by the successive hydrogenation of *CH₃COO to ethanol. To further enhance ethanol yield, Wang et al. introduced Ni as a promoter into CoAlO_x, resulting in the synthesis of a Co_{0.52}Ni_{0.48}AlO_x catalyst. The presence of Co-Ni alloy in this catalyst promotes the intermediate *CH_x formation, which ultimately accelerates the C-C coupling to form ethanol. As a result, ethanol selectivity reached 85.7%, and the STY of ethanol improved to 1.32 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ [43].

Additionally, He et al. discovered the synergetic promotion of water and Pt/Co₃O₄ catalysts and thus achieved 57% HA selectivity and a STY_{HA} of 0.29 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ at 200 °C and 8 MPa [29]. The authors observed kinetic influence of water in the hydrogenation of CO₂. D₂ and ¹³C labeling experiments indicated a crucial role of water in protonating methanol, subsequently dissociating into CH₃*, OH*, and H* species. Finally, CH₃* couples with CO to form CH₃CO*, followed by hydrogenation to produce ethanol.

3.1.4. Mo-based catalysts

Mo-based catalysts are typically applied with MoS₂, Mo₂C, MoO_x or MoP as the active phase and have been widely studied in HAS from

syngas [77]. Transition and alkali metals are common additives to enhance the HAS over Mo-based catalysts. Here, the former enhances the carbon chain growth activity of Mo-based catalysts, while alkali metals can inhibit the formation of hydrocarbons and thus promote the synthesis of alcohols [77]. Nieskens et al. studied the performance of CoMoS catalysts for HAS from CO₂ at 10.4 MPa and 340 °C, with a HA selectivity of 6.0% [36]. Liu et al. synthesized a KMoCoS-AC catalyst supported on activated carbon. The authors proposed that online calcination can effectively suppress surface sulfur loss, favoring the formation of Mo⁴⁺ species, thereby enhancing the catalyst's selectivity towards alcohols. KMoCoS-AC achieved a CO₂ conversion of 8.1% and a selectivity of 4.8% towards higher alcohols at condition of 320 °C, 5 MPa, and 3000 mL g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ [35]. Besides, Chen et al. synthesized a series of metal/Mo₂C catalysts for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to alcohols, evaluating their performance in 1,4-dioxane solvent. At 200 °C and 4 MPa, Mo₂C achieved 16% selectivity towards higher alcohols and 53% selectivity towards methanol. Fig. 6 provides the reaction mechanism proposed by the authors. During CO hydrogenation experiments, they observed significantly lower methanol production compared to CO₂ hydrogenation, suggesting that the majority of methanol is derived from the hydrogenation of formate or aldehydes [127,128]. Additionally, independent tests on methanol hydrogenation revealed that methanol itself is not an intermediate for C₂₊-alcohol and C₂₊-hydrocarbons. The researchers postulated that carbon chain elongation involves the molecularly adsorbed CO, which is subsequently hydrogenated to methoxy (-CHO) species [33,129].

In summary, the exemplary discussion of Rh-, Cu-, Co-, and Mo-catalysts for the direct hydrogenation of CO₂ to higher alcohols evidenced the possibility of improved CO₂ conversion and HA selectivity over catalysts with tailored properties. However, the improvements often rely on the incorporation of multitude of metals and promoters, which increases the catalysts complexity and leads to a difficulty to draw comprehensive structure-activity relationships. Although at first glance the CO₂ hydrogenation to higher alcohols seems like a relatively straightforward reaction, the design of selective catalysts for higher alcohols synthesis is a highly challenging task for several reasons: (i) catalysts must unite functionalities for both C-C-coupling as well as OH-group formation on one material, (ii) the combination of those functionalities must effectively avoid a wide variety of unwanted side products, such as methanol, carbon monoxide, hydrocarbons, DME and many more, (iii) the developed catalytic systems must exhibit long-term stability in continuous reactions and ideally function without additional solvents to facilitate the route to industrial implementation.

Originally, Rh-based systems suffered from excessive CO-dissociation and thus high hydrocarbon selectivity. However, through significant research efforts, a comprehensive understanding of the role of alkali metal promoters in suppression of hydrocarbon formation was developed [77,101]. Despite these improvements, excessive dissociation and thus high CH₄-selectivity as well as simultaneously high CO-selectivity [26], combined with high material costs, prevent Rh-catalysts from drawing deeper research interest. On the other hand, Cu-based systems often show remarkable CO₂-activation via the RWGS

reaction and simultaneously excellent capability of non-dissociative CO-adsorption. However, this strength simultaneously restricts the ability to form *CH_x-species from CO, which represent crucial intermediates for C-C-coupling and thus the generation of higher alcohols. Hence, Cu-based systems often require other transition metals (e.g., Fe or Co) to improve their ability to generate key *CH_x-intermediates [77, 78], which in turn significantly increase the share of hydrocarbons, mainly methane, in the product fraction [37,130]. Co-based systems, in turn, display the opposite problem compared to Cu-based catalysts. Known for their strong affinity for carbon chain growth and hydrocarbon formation, Co-catalysts lack OH-group formation functionalities to suppress excessive hydrocarbon selectivity in the direct hydrogenation of CO₂ to higher alcohols. Though some researchers achieved impressive ethanol selectivity over Co-based systems, they required either exotic additives or were obtained under batch conditions [42,126]. Finally, Mo-based catalysts reported so far often suffer from low CO₂ conversion and unsatisfactory HA selectivity. Moreover, current research in Mo-based catalytic systems lacks comprehensive studies on the reaction mechanism.

In summary, catalysts for the direct hydrogenation of CO₂ to higher alcohols still face one major challenge related to having the combination of all necessary functionalities, mainly CO₂ activation, C-C-coupling, and OH-group formation, in a single catalyst. Most of the above-mentioned group of catalysts only achieve outstanding performance due to the presence one or more of these functionalities. Although their catalytic performance was able to be partially enhanced, their shortcoming due to the absence of remaining functionalities often prevents these catalysts from further application. Hence, to tackle the unsatisfactory selectivity for higher alcohols on single catalytic systems, the research focus is quickly shifting towards multifunctional catalysts due to their versatility and flexibility.

3.2. Multifunctional sites for CO₂ hydrogenation

As discussed above, the synthesis of higher alcohols from CO₂ is a complex process involving multiple intermediate reactions. As a result, various proposed mechanisms have been put forward to explain the series of involved steps. Accordingly, the three most common mechanisms for CO₂ hydrogenation are (i) the CO-mediated mechanism, (ii) the formate/methoxy-mediated pathway, and (iii) other C-C coupling mechanisms, respectively. The CO-mediated mechanism was first proposed by Kusama et al [98]. It involves the generation of the key intermediate *CO from CO₂ through the RWGS reaction. Then, *CO partly dissociates into *CH_x, and finally, higher alcohols are formed by inserting the non-dissociated *CO into *CH_x. Therefore, the primary objective of this mechanism is to balance the amount of dissociated *CO (*CH_x) and non-dissociated *CO to maximize the formation of higher alcohols. On the contrary, the formate/methoxy-mediated pathway involves the direct conversion of CO₂ to *HCOO, followed by generating various intermediates such as *CHO, *CH₂O, *CH₃O, *CH₃, and *CH₃CO. Subsequently, C-C coupling between these intermediates leads to the formation of alcohols.

Since higher alcohols are formed step-by-step from intermediates in both CO-mediated and formate/methoxy-mediated mechanisms, a single active site is often not capable of effectively catalyzing the entire catalytic cycle. Therefore, catalysts with multifunctional sites, which enable synergistic effects of CO₂ activation, carbon chain growth, and alcohol generation are crucial for effective alcohol synthesis. For example, the role of different sites on cobalt-based catalysts, such as Co⁰, CoO, Co^{δ+}, and Co₂C, and the strategies to tune their structures to affect the performance in CO₂ hydrogenation is discussed in our previous review [60]. The synergistic effect of different sites on the catalyst performance of Co-based catalysts is significant, as it is for other metal-based catalysts. Thus, understanding the mechanisms involved in CO₂ hydrogenation and the design of efficient catalysts with multifunctional sites are crucial for the successful production of higher

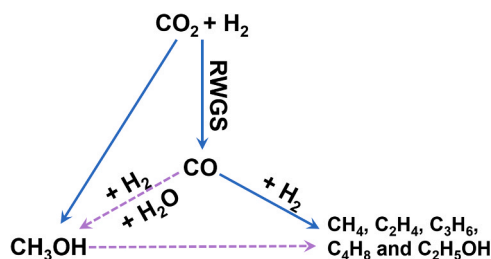


Fig. 6. Reaction pathways to produce alcohols and hydrocarbons by CO₂ hydrogenation over Mo₂C catalyst. The solid arrows denote major pathways and the dashed arrows denote minor pathways [33].

Table 2Representative catalysts with multifunctional sites for the CO₂ hydrogenation to HA.

Catalyst	Reactor ^a	T ^b /°C	P ^c /MPa	X _{CO2} ^d /%	S _{HA} ^e /%	STY _{HA} ^f /mmol g _{cat} ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	Multifunctional sites
Au/aTiO ₂ [30]	T	200	6	n.a.	> 99	2.83	①Au NCs ②a-TiO ₂
RhFeLi/TiO ₂ [26]	F	250	3	15.7	16	0.36	①Rh NPs ②TiO ₂ NRs ③FeO _x ④Li
K-Co-In ₂ O ₃ [131]	F	380	4	36.6	11.1	3.73	①In ₂ O ₃ ②Co ⁰ ③CoO ④K-CoO ₂
Na-Co/SiO ₂ [46]	F	250	5	18.8	8.7	0.16	①Co ₂ C ②Si-O-Co in SiO ₂
CoAlO _x [42]	T	140	4	n.a.	92.1	0.444	①Co ⁰ ②CoO
Co _{0.52} Ni _{0.48} AlO _x [43]	T	200	4	n.a.	85.7	1.32	①Co ⁰ ②CoO ③CoNi alloy
Cs-C _{0.8} F _{1.0} Zr _{1.0} [37]	F	330	5	36.6	19.8	1.47	①Cu-ZnO ②Cu-Fe ₂ C ₃ ③Cs

^a T indicates tank reactor, F indicates fixed bed reactor,^b temperature,^c pressure,^d CO₂ conversion,^e selectivity to higher alcohols,^f space-time yield of higher alcohols.

alcohols by CO₂ hydrogenation.

Table 2 presents a summary of current representative catalysts with multifunctional sites, highlighting their unique features and exceptional performance for CO₂ hydrogenation. Among these, TiO₂-supported Au-nanoclusters (NC) have demonstrated outstanding ethanol selectivity (>99%) and a STY_{EtOH} of 2.83 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹. The authors attributed these results to the synergistic effect of Au NCs and TiO₂ enhancing metal-support interactions due to the abundant oxygen vacancies of the TiO₂-anatase, ultimately enabling effective activation of CO₂ and H₂ [30]. Moreover, Yang et al. reported a RhFeLi/TiO₂ catalyst with 15% CO₂ conversion and 32% ethanol selectivity at 250 °C and 3 MPa. The high catalytic activity was correlated to several factors, including high Rh-dispersion on the TiO₂-nanorods (NRs) support, promotion of the RWGS reaction by FeO_x-species, and increased CO₂ conversion by Li addition. The hydroxyl group introduced on the TiO₂ NRs also facilitates the dissociation of methanol to *CH_x, promoting CO-insertion to form ethanol [26]. The promising STY_{HA} of 3.73 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ on a K-Co-promoted In₂O₃-catalyst by the group of Witton was attributed to defects on In₂O₃ sites, which effectively catalyzed the RWGS reaction to convert CO₂ to CO, while Co⁰ sites simultaneously participate in the dissociative adsorption of C-O and carbon chain growth to form C_xH_y * intermediates. Besides, K was identified to inhibit excessive C_xH_y * hydrogenation to reduce the formation of hydrocarbons and improve the selectivity of higher alcohols [131]. Zhang et al. also conducted a study on the preparation of Na-Co catalysts supported on SiO₂, which exhibited a high selectivity of 62.8% towards ethanol in the alcohol distribution and demonstrated good stability over 300 h time on stream. The observed catalytic activity was attributed to the presence of Co₂C site, while the long-term stability was attributed to the formation of a strong metal-support interaction between Co₂C and SiO₂ on the catalyst surface, resulting in the formation of a Si-O-Co bond. This interaction facilitated the continuous reconstitution of Co₂C even after decomposition [46]. Furthermore, Wang et al. emphasized the importance of the metal Co⁰ site on CoAlO_x catalysts for the formation of ethanol. They highlighted that the synergistic effect between suitable proportions of Co⁰ and CoO plays a vital role in maximizing ethanol production [42].

In summary, the establishment of multifunctional sites is deemed essential for CO₂ hydrogenation to higher alcohols, because higher alcohol formation requires catalysts with the capacity to activate CO₂, promote carbon chain growth, as well as facilitate alcohol formation at the same time, which cannot be accomplished by a single site alone. Catalysts possessing the various active sites to realize functions for higher alcohols synthesis the core of catalyst design for direct higher alcohols synthesis via CO₂ hydrogenation. Catalysts with modified nanoscale features, such as the introduction of promoters or the construction of specific structures such as MOFs or zeolites, are essential for building synergistic interactions of multiple sites to enhance catalytic activity. However, acquiring functional sites that produce desired synergistic effects remains challenging until now. In general, if the

formation of stable key intermediates of the reaction is achieved and each functional site acts sequentially, not only macroscopic tunability of the reaction will be improved, but also the overall catalytic efficiency will be enhanced. Therefore, integrating catalysts with diverse functionalities offers a practical and efficient strategy to achieve multifunctional catalytic reactions.

4. Indirect CO₂ hydrogenation to higher alcohols

In this review, the indirect hydrogenation of CO₂ to higher alcohols is considered as a more general term for processes, that consist of multiple sequential catalytic steps over multiple and clearly distinguishable catalysts. Hence, due to its cooperative process design and the synergy of multiple catalysts within one superordinated process, here the hydrogenation of CO₂ to higher alcohols via this pathway is designated as ‘tandem catalysis’. This highly flexible approach can either be performed in one single reactor, e.g. through multiple catalytic beds, or it can also involve sequential reactions in multiple reactors/beds by connecting in series mode. By vastly expanding the number of possible functionalities over the catalytic system, tandem catalysis may unveil novel and flexible approaches to reimagine established catalytic processes.[132] In addition, this approach can help deepen the understanding of the reaction mechanism in HAS. To optimize the activity of such tandem catalysts, the proximity of the multiple functional sites is crucial to consider. Among other things, the integrating mode of the separate catalyst beds has a substantial influence on the proximity of active sites.

4.1. Tandem catalysis system

4.1.1. Physical mixing

Physical mixing is a commonly employed technique in catalyst synthesis, particularly in HAS by syngas and CO₂ hydrogenation [10, 133–135]. This method allows for the incorporation of multiple functional sites, thereby enhancing catalyst performance. Various mixing modes can be employed, each with its unique effects on the catalyst performance. Fig. 7 illustrates several distinct integration modes for two catalysts A and B. The first mode integrates two reactors in series, enabling two separate reactions under different reaction conditions in tandem, and is characterized by simplicity of regulation. In the second and third modes, dual-bed mixing is employed, wherein catalysts A and B are sequentially stacked within two catalytic beds in one reactor, catalyzing various reactions in series under the same reaction conditions. The fourth mode mixes the granules of catalyst A and B in one catalytic bed, enabling uniform mixing, as well as faster heat and mass exchange between reactions over catalyst A and B. The fifth mode is powder mixing, in which the powders of the two catalysts are mixed to form one granule, further facilitating heat and mass exchange. The sixth mode mixes the catalyst powders by a mortar mixing step before

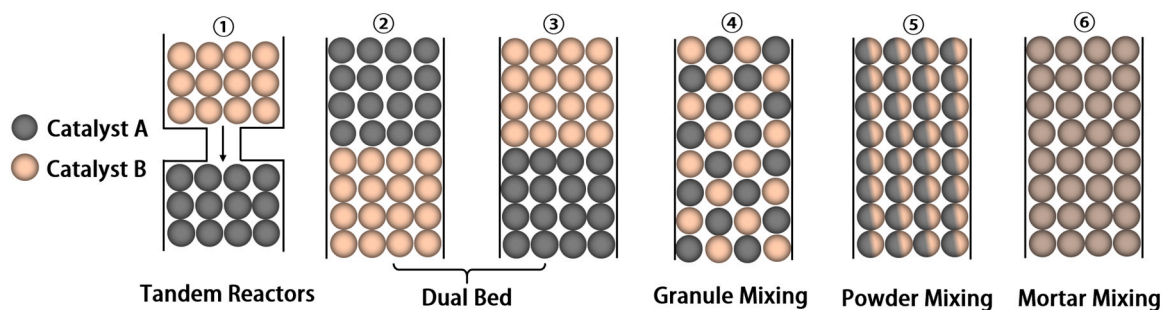


Fig. 7. A variety of different integrating modes of two catalytic functionalities.

granulating, leading to the closest proximity of the catalyst functionalities. However, it is important to note that proximity alone does not guarantee improved catalytic performance. Xu et al. conducted a study on the effect of different reactor filling configurations of CuZnAl/K-CuMgZnFe catalysts on the catalytic performance [63]. Their findings revealed that the catalysts exhibited the highest CO₂ conversion, HA selectivity, and STY when employing the powder mixing mode (⑤). Excessive proximity between the catalysts, as achieved through mortar mixing, led to a decline in catalytic activity. This detrimental effect can be attributed to the promoter K in the K-CuMgZnFe catalyst, which, in excessive proximity, can poison the CuZnAl oxide. Consequently, selecting an appropriate mixing mode is crucial to facilitate the optimal functioning of both catalysts. Thus, the selection of integrating modes needs to consider the difference in the reaction conditions of the planned reactions over catalysts A and B, as well as the necessity to increase proximity of the catalysts, which may enhance the overall reaction by facilitating the heat and mass exchange, as well as the interaction between catalyst A and B. At the same time potential detrimental effects of the catalysts on each other require attention.

The investigation of physically mixed catalysts and their role in the reaction process is of utmost importance to comprehensively understand the factors contributing to enhanced catalytic performance. Santos et al. conducted a study on the reaction mechanism involved in the synthesis of higher alcohols from syngas utilizing K-MoS₂ catalysts [136]. Notably, the incorporation of K into MoS₂ through physical mixing had a profound impact on the catalyst's electronic properties, as well as its ability to facilitate CO-insertion. Huang et al. prepared CCA|ZnO/ZrO₂ catalysts for the synthesis of higher alcohols from syngas, employing a mortar mixing technique to combine CuCoAl and ZnO/ZrO₂. Remarkably, the highest selectivity of higher alcohols was achieved when the ZnO/ZrO₂ ratio was maintained at 4:1. Through rigorous characterization techniques, the researchers determined that an optimal ZnO/ZrO₂ ratio was pivotal in maintaining an optimal equilibrium between the key intermediates CO* and CH_x. This equilibrium enhancement facilitated the probability of CH_x*-CO* coupling, consequently enhancing the HA selectivity [135]. Moreover, the group of Liu devised the CuZnAl/K-CuMgZnFe multifunctional catalyst by physically mixing CuZnAl and K-CuMgZnFe to establish a tandem reaction system for HAS by CO₂ hydrogenation [63]. In this system, CuZnAl was primarily active in the RWGS reaction, leading to the formation of CO* intermediates, while K-CuMgZnFe facilitated the insertion of CO to generate higher alcohols. The synergy between the two catalysts was crucial in achieving comparable reaction rates for both processes. Moreover, the appropriate spacing between CuZnAl and K-CuMgZnFe proved to be instrumental in enhancing the transfer velocity of *CO intermediates between the two catalysts, thereby increasing the yield of higher alcohols.

In summary, the utilization of physical mixing catalysts has demonstrated remarkable performance enhancements in HAS as well as a further understanding of the reaction mechanisms. Consequently, drawing inspiration from these findings and capitalizing on the macroscopic tunability afforded by physical mixing, the idea of employing the physical mixing mode to combine catalysts in well-established tandem

reaction systems for the sequential conversion of CO₂ to higher alcohols holds great potential. Mainly, this approach offers considerable potential to integrate catalysts of currently more mature reactions, thus paving the way for the development of a sophisticated tandem reaction system. In the subsequent sections, several pathways for the conversion of CO₂ to higher alcohols will be presented, thereby presenting a novel catalyst design concept.

Generally, when planning new tandem catalytic systems on a research scale, it is crucial to consider basic process parameters, for example, the temperature or pressure profile of the individual reactions, to evaluate the technological feasibility of their combination. Fig. 8 summarizes the overview of the operating temperature ranges of the individual processes that will be discussed in the following chapter. Thus, this in turn helps to identify and evaluate the integration parameters of both promising processes to be coupled in tandem catalysis as well as pairs, which might demand more sophisticated approaches to bridge the temperature gap between individual steps. Besides, such considerations help to identify reasonable integration modes for different catalysts. For example, based on Figs. 7 and 8, it is reasonable to assume that the combined process of CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol + methanol to olefins + olefin hydration to higher alcohols is not suitable for the integration modes ②-⑥ because of the significant differences in reaction temperature of the individual processes. If, however, one aims to couple RWGS with the conversion of synthetic gas to HA, choosing an integration mode within one single reactor might be a good choice.

4.1.2. Recent advances in tandem-catalyzed CO₂ hydrogenation to HA

The use of tandem catalysis strategies in the design of catalysts or reaction systems for the hydrogenation of CO₂ to produce higher alcohols dates back over 20 years. In 1998, Inui and Yamamoto employed a method involving physical mixing and packing of catalysts in series to devise distinct tandem catalytic processes for three types of catalysts [137]. These catalysts possess distinct functionalities: the loaded Rh-based catalyst, Rh/silicate, capable of partially reducing CO₂ to CO; the modified FTS catalyst Fe_{1.0}Cu_{0.03}Al_{2.0}K_{0.7}, with the ability to form C-C bonds; and the methanol synthesis catalyst with -OH functional groups insertion ability. Through the refinement of reaction conditions, the authors achieved a STY_{HA} of 874 g L⁻¹ h⁻¹ and a 31.1% CO₂ conversion at 330 °C, 8 MPa, and 50,000 h⁻¹ [137,138]. Subsequently, they optimized the Fe-based and Cu-based catalysts using Ga and Pd. Under identical temperature, pressure, and a space velocity of 20000 h⁻¹, they achieved 54.5% CO₂ conversion and a STY_{HA} of 476 g L⁻¹ h⁻¹ [139].

Currently, the tandem catalysis approach has already proven to be effective in efficiently converting syngas to HA [132,140–145]. However, only some progress has been made in the indirect hydrogenation of CO₂ to higher alcohols using a tandem catalysis method. Catalytic systems designed through various physical mixing methods gain increasing attention [61–63,146,147]. These catalytic systems display effective production and stabilization of key intermediates, such as CH_x* and/or CO*, during the reaction process, thereby converting the intermediates into the final desired product. For example, the Wu group combined an

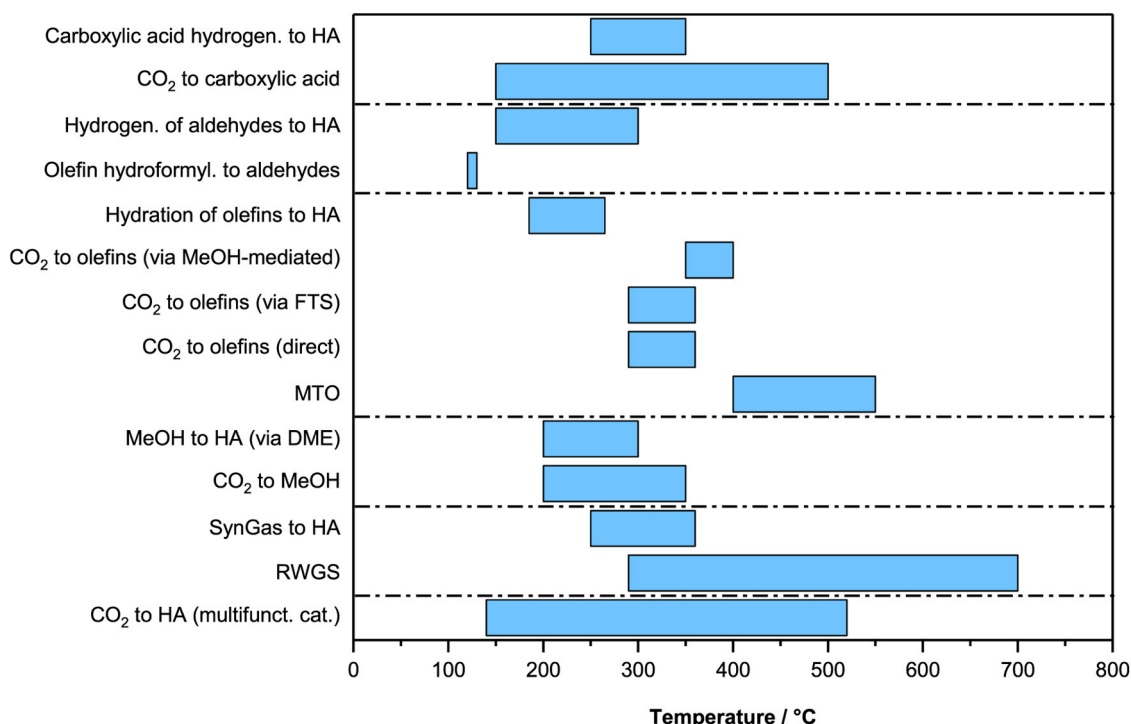


Fig. 8. Temperature ranges of different processes.

ethylene synthesis catalyst (Na-Fe@C) with a methanol synthesis catalyst (CuZnAl). And, the catalytic performance was compared in powder mixing, granule mixing and dual bed modes, and found that granule mixing (mode ④ of Fig. 7) had the best HAS activity. This phenomenon was attributed to the coverage of the active sites of the multifunctional catalyst in the powder mixing mode. Combining two catalysts through granule mixing can increase the spatial distance between different catalytic components, thereby reducing the difficulty of C-C coupling to achieve high ethanol selectivity. However, further increasing the distance between the active sites (dual bed mode), the intermediates produced by the two catalyst beds are difficult to combine directly, resulting in lower selectivity for higher alcohols [147]. In the condition of granule mixing, the resulting catalyst exhibited a CO₂ conversion of 39.2% and ethanol selectivity of 35.0% at 5 MPa and 320 °C. A mechanistic overview of the reaction network over Na-Fe@C/K-CuZnAl catalyst is shown in Fig. 9. The CuZnAl catalyst played a vital role in the RWGS reaction by providing CO* intermediates for subsequent FTS and ethanol synthesis. On the other hand, iron carbide facilitated the dissociation of CO* to form CH_m* intermediates, which underwent C-C coupling to generate key aldehyde-intermediates. Finally, the aldehydes were further hydrogenated to yield ethanol. The closely linked tandem reaction mechanism resulted in a highly active catalyst, enabling efficient diffusion of the reaction intermediates from one catalytic site to another during the multifunctional composite tandem catalytic process, ultimately leading to selective synthesis of the target product.

Zhang et al. also investigated Co₂C||CuZnAl as multifunctional tandem catalyst for CO₂ hydrogenation to higher alcohols in a dual-bed mode and elucidated the specific reaction network. The tandem catalysis design is shown in Fig. 10, and activity test results show that the dual bed mode in which the feed gas first contacts the Co₂C catalyst exhibits the highest HA selectivity, while the other dual bed mode, powder mixing, and catalyst prepared by impregnation method (Co/CuZnAl) can hardly produce higher alcohols. The authors hypothesized that the combination mode can effectively regulate the reaction mechanism, thus affecting the selectivity of the desired product. Based on various in situ characterization techniques, the authors provide the following reaction mechanism for C₂+OH formation: first, CO₂

undergoes hydrogenation on Co₂C, resulting in the formation of olefins. Subsequently, these olefins diffuse to CuZnAl sites to dissociate, forming R-CH₂ intermediates. This R-CH₂ species then couples with CHO at the Cu/ZnAl₂O₄ interface, leading to the formation of higher alcohols. The incorporation of these multiple active sites in the catalyst design effectively generates R-CH₂ and CHO intermediates, facilitating C-C coupling and enabling a high STY_{HA} of 2.2 mmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ [62].

Additionally, the Guo group employed Mn, Cu, and K for the modification of iron carbide and combined it with a CuZnAlZr catalyst to design a tandem catalytic system. In situ DRIFTS results indicate a more pronounced formation of ethoxy species (*C₂H₅O) species over the tandem catalytic system compared to a single catalyst, demonstrating that the powder mixing is advantageous for the formation of this crucial intermediate. The authors additionally investigated the impact of different mixing methods on catalytic performance. Accordingly, powder mixing of both catalysts yielded the best results with a CO₂ conversion of 42.1% and a HA selectivity of 15.5% at 300 °C, 3 MPa, and 6000 mL g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹. Unsuitable proximity of the different functionalities in dual-bed approaches resulted in considerable decreases in both CO₂ conversion and HA selectivity [61].

To further emphasize the importance of different integration modes on the efficiency of tandem catalytic systems, Fig. 11 illustrates the influence of the adopted integration modes on CO₂ conversion and HA selectivity in five tandem catalytic systems. As depicted in the figure, the dual-bed design is widely utilized in current tandem catalytic CO₂-to-HA systems due to its operational convenience. However, because of the differences in reaction pathways as well as physical and chemical properties of each catalyst, the dual-bed configuration is not necessarily the most effective. On the contrary, the majority of tandem catalytic systems requires closer proximity of their different functionalities for optimal performance. Compared to powder mixing, only the Co₂C||CuZnAl system exhibits higher S_{HA} and X_{CO2} in the dual-bed configuration.

It is worth mentioning that the arrangement sequence of the dual-bed significantly influences the selectivity to higher alcohols. For instance, in the Co₂C-CuZnAl system, Co₂C||CuZnAl dual bed with feed gas flow from Co₂C bed to CuZnAl possesses a HA selectivity of 18%,

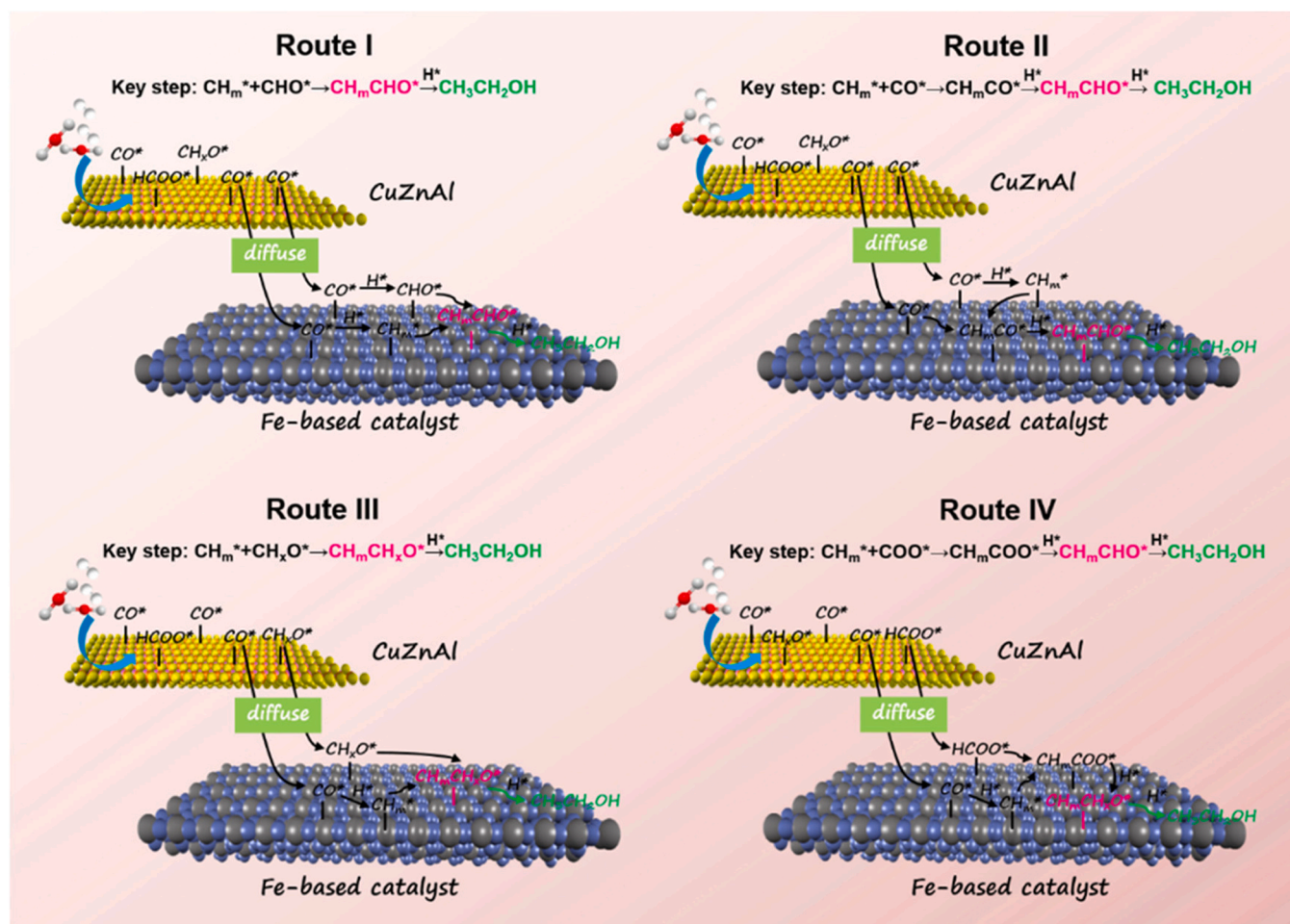


Fig. 9. Reaction network for ethanol synthesis from CO_2 hydrogenation via the Na-Fe@C/K-CuZnAl multifunctional catalyst. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [147].

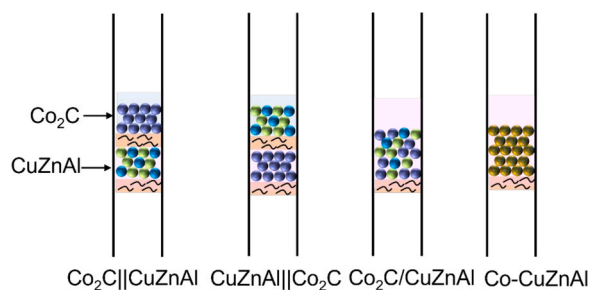


Fig. 10. The multifunctional tandem catalysts combined with Co_2C and CuZnAl.

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which is much higher than that of 0.2% over CuZnAl|| Co_2C dual bed with an inverse packing order. The author hypothesized that the reason for this phenomenon is that the synergistic effect of C-C coupling and elementary reaction in the CuZnAl|| Co_2C catalyst no longer exists, so methane is the main product. [62] After thorough studies of literature on tandem catalytic systems for the CO_2 hydrogenation to higher alcohols, most of the reported tandem catalytic processes show a predominant reliance on CuZnAl(Zr)-based methanol synthesis (MS) catalysts for initiating the RWGS reaction for CO generation. Subsequently, CO couples with various intermediates to form higher alcohols. However,

there are different catalysts capable of forming alternative stable intermediates, such as light olefins, carboxylic acids, or methanol, that are worth considering. These catalysts could serve as alternative initial components in lieu of CuZnAl(Zr)-based catalysts, initiating a cascade of reactions leading to the production of higher alcohols. Hence, later sections will discuss such alternatives in further detail.

4.2. Reverse water gas shift reaction and conversion of syngas to higher alcohols

4.2.1. Reverse water gas shift reaction

The reverse water gas shift reaction describes the endothermic reaction of CO_2 and H_2 to form CO and H_2O . Here, CO is part of the industrially applied synthesis gas, consisting of CO and H_2 . Given the well-established conversion pathways of syngas into valuable chemicals and fuels, the RWGS reaction has gained substantial attention in research. Early-stage research predominantly centered on metal oxide catalysts, including CeO_2 , In_2O_3 , ZrO_2 , ZnO , CuO , Fe_3O_4 , and MnO , owing to their abundant oxygen vacancies and resulting favorable CO_2 activation [93,148,149]. Nonetheless, as mono-metal oxides are susceptible to sintering and prone to poisoning, a shift in research focus towards composite oxide catalysts was required. Table 3 shows several state-of-the-art catalysts for RWGS reactions. These catalysts can be broadly categorized into two types: (i) noble metal-based catalysts and (ii) non-noble metal-based catalysts. The extraordinary RWGS activity exhibited by these catalysts stems from their remarkable CO_2 activation and C-O bond breaking capabilities. In recent years, researchers have

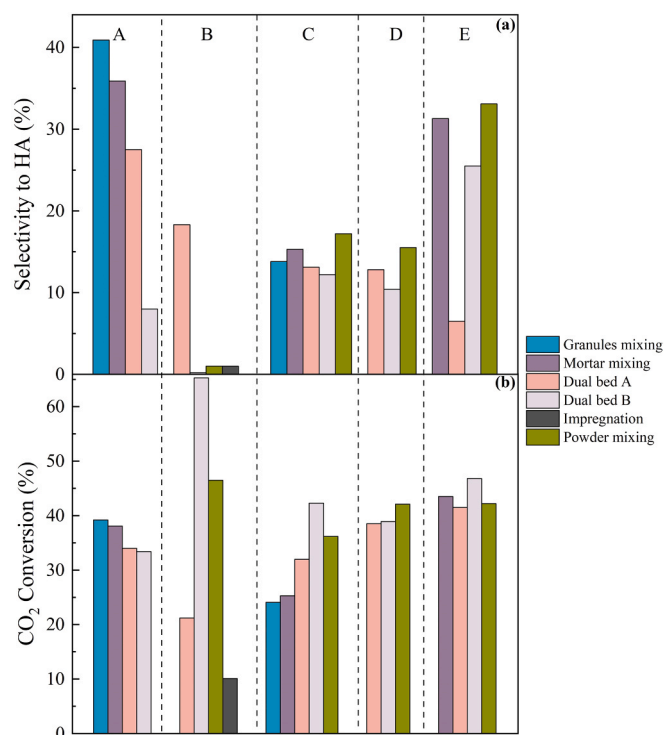


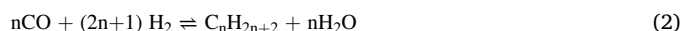
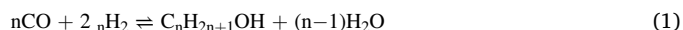
Fig. 11. Effect of different integration modes on catalysts during tandem catalysis: (a) effect on higher alcohol selectivity and (b) effect on CO₂ conversion. Catalyst system A: 2%Na-Fe@C & 5%K-CuZnAl, $p = 5$ MPa, $T = 320$ °C, GHSV = 4500 mL g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ [147], B: Co₂C & CuZnAl, $p = 5$ MPa, $T = 250$ °C, GHSV = 12000 mL g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ [62], C: CuZnAl & K-CuMgZnFe, $p = 5$ MPa, $T = 320$ °C, GHSV = 6000 mL g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ [63], D: MnCuK-FeC & CuZnAlZr, $p = 3$ MPa, $T = 300$ °C, GHSV = 6000 mL g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ [61], E: 4.7KCuFeZn & CuZnAlZr, $p = 5$ MPa, $T = 300$ °C, GHSV = 3000 mL g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ [146], Bed A and Bed B represent the two sequences in which the feed gas is passed into the reactor bed in a system using a dual bed.

made significant advancements in the development of non-noble metal-based catalysts exhibiting high RWGS activity. Notably, supported Cu-based systems such as Cu/Al₂O₃, Cu/CeO₂, and Cs-Cu-CeO₂ have emerged as prominent examples. These catalysts have demonstrated the ability to achieve CO₂ conversion and CO selectivity exceeding 50% and 90%, respectively [150–152]. As a consequence of such remarkable catalytic performance, the utilization of highly active non-noble metal-based RWGS catalysts in the initial catalytic step of tandem reactions became a reasonable option. An efficient RWGS reaction effectively

leads to a gas mixture consisting, among others, of carbon monoxide and hydrogen, effectively offering a synthesis gas mixture for subsequent reaction steps.

4.2.2. Synthesis of higher alcohols from syngas

In the wake of the oil crisis in the 1970 s, the world witnessed an upsurge in research endeavors focused on exploring alternative energy sources, driven by the imperative to reduce reliance on non-renewable oil resources [160]. Among the crucial areas of investigation, the conversion of syngas emerged as a prominent field. Syngas, derived from carbon-containing sources such as coal, natural gas, and biomass, present a versatile feedstock for the production of diverse valuable chemicals and fuels. Within this context, the synthesis of higher alcohols holds particular significance. In general, three primary reactions occur in HAS from syngas: the alcohol-formation reaction (Eq. 1), the hydrocarbon-formation reaction (Eq. 2), and the water-gas-shift reaction (Eq. 3). Notably, these reactions are characterized by their exothermic nature, that requires low-temperature and high-pressure as process conditions [161]. However, an inherent challenge lies in minimizing the formation of by-products, mainly CO₂ and hydrocarbons, to achieve high yields of desired higher alcohols. Hence, an efficient catalyst design is required to suppress the CO₂ as well as hydrocarbons formation and enhance HA selectivity.



Catalysts employed for the syngas conversion to higher alcohols can be divided into four major groups: (i) Rh-based, (ii) Mo-based, (iii) modified Fischer-Tropsch-synthesis and (iv) methanol synthesis catalysts [77,162]. Table 4 displays the catalytic performances under their respective reaction conditions for a selection of such catalysts.

Among the commonly investigated catalytic systems, Rh-based catalysts hold considerable potential for the synthesis of C₂₊-oxygen-containing compounds through CO hydrogenation, as Rh exhibits a dissociation ability weaker than Co, Fe, and Ru, yet stronger than Pd, Pt, and Ir. For the synthesis of higher alcohols, Rh-based catalysts are considered as ideal systems, and intensive studies are performed on the effect of promoters. Accordingly, transition and alkali metal additives, such as Mn, Fe, and Li, are found to be beneficial to carbon chain growth and suppressing hydrocarbon formation [175,163,176]. Besides, support materials that ensure the high dispersion of Rh nanoparticles (NPs) confer advantages in higher alcohol formation [177]. Notably, ordered mesoporous carbon (OMC)-supported Rh NPs display remarkable catalytic performance due to the highly dispersed and size-controlled

Table 3
Several current state-of-the-art RWGS catalysts.

Catalyst	H ₂ /CO ₂ ratio	T ^a /°C	p ^b /MPa	WHSV ^c /L·g _{cat} ⁻¹ ·h ⁻¹	X ^d _{CO2} /%	S ^e _{CO} /%
In ₂ O ₃ -CeO ₂ [149]	1:1	500	n.a.	48	20	100
Fe-oxide NPs [153]	1:1	600	n.a.	1.2	38	85
Pt/CeO ₂ [154]	4:1	290	0.1	600	21.7	100
Au/TiO ₂ [155]	4:1	400	n.a.	7.5	35	100
Rh@S-1 [156]	3:1	500	1.0	3.6	52	80
Pd-In/SiO ₂ [157]	1:1	600	0.1	60	10	100
NiO/CeO ₂ [158]	1:1	700	0.1	3	40	100
Cs-Cu-CeO ₂ [150]	9:1	500	0.1	30	70	90
Cu/CeO ₂ -hs [151]	3:1	600	0.1	300	50	100
Cu/Al ₂ O ₃ [152]	3:1	600	0.1	n.a.	50	100
Cs-Mo ₂ C [159]	4:1	500	n.a.	12	42	90

^a Temperature,

^b pressure,

^c weight hourly space velocity,

^d CO₂ conversion,

^e CO selectivity.

Table 4
Current typical Syngas-to-HA catalysts.

Catalyst	H ₂ /CO ratio	T ^a /°C	p ^b /MPa	WHSV ^c /L-g _{cat} ⁻¹ h ⁻¹	X ^d CO /%	S ^e HA /%
Rh-Mn-Li-Fe/SiO ₂ [163]	2	300	3	10	28	33
Rh-Mn-Li-Fe/CMK-9 [164]	2	320	3	12	14	55
Rh/Ce _{0.8} Zr _{0.2} O ₂ [165]	2	275	2.4	2.4	27	40
Ni _{0.5} Mo ₁ K _{0.5} -15%CNTs [166]	1	320	8	4	13.3	32
K-Co-MoS _x -0.13 [167]	1	360	8.7	4.5	18.7	38.5
K-MoP/SiO ₂ [168]	1	275	8.2	3.96	8	21
Cu-Co-Red/10%CNTs [169]	2	260	3	3.9	60.8	48.5
Co ₁ /CeO ₂ [170]	2	260	5	9	1.0	14.1
La _{0.9} K _{0.1} Co _x Fe _{1-x} O ₃ /ZrO ₂ [171]	2	260	4	6	14.3	38.9
Cs ₂ O-Cu/ZnO/Al ₂ O ₃ [172]	2	310	5.4	3.75	42.6	23.1
K-La-Cu/ZrO ₂ [173]	2.5	360	10	3	63	20
P-Cu-Zn-Al [174]	2	250	4.5	n.a.	19	52.9

^a Temperature,

^b pressure,

^c weight hourly space velocity,

^d CO conversion,

^e selectivity to higher alcohols.

properties of the aggregated Rh NPs, achieving higher alcohols selectivity of 55% [164]. Furthermore, strong metal-support interactions have also been reported to enhance catalytic activity. For instance, the introduction of Zr⁴⁺ ions to CeO₂ imparts basicity, resulting in a Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂ support simultaneously exhibiting optimized reduction, acidity, and basicity properties. As a result, Rh/Ce_{0.8}Zr_{0.2}O₂ exhibits excellent selectivity towards higher alcohols, achieving a selectivity of 40% [165]. Despite the excellent activity demonstrated by Rh-based catalysts for higher alcohol synthesis, their wide-scale application is hindered by their immense cost.

Aiming at cost competitive catalytic systems, extensive research has been conducted on Mo-based catalysts in the context of syngas-to-higher alcohols conversion, owing to their remarkable resistance to sulfur and their favorable selectivity towards alcohols [79]. Most studies on Mo-based catalysts have primarily focused on compounds wherein Mo is combined with ligands such as C, O, S, or P [77]. When single Mo catalysts are employed for CO hydrogenation, they predominantly generate light hydrocarbons and CO₂, with only a limited production of alcohols. Therefore, to improve HA yields, it becomes necessary to employ Mo-based catalysts in conjunction with other elements, particularly alkali and group VIII metals. An exemplary catalyst, Ni_{0.5}Mo₁K_{0.5}, demonstrates favorable HA selectivity (32%) through the promotion of K and Ni, while the presence of doped carbon nanotubes facilitates the modulation of surface-active species adsorption and H₂ activation [166]. In a study by Xi et al., the influence of Co-promotion on product selectivity of K-Co-MoS_x catalysts was investigated. It was observed that K-Co-MoS_x-0.13, containing the highest quantity of Co-Mo-S and Co₉S₈ phase, exhibited the highest selectivity towards higher alcohols (38.5%) and an unprecedented selectivity of 28.7% towards C₃₊ alcohols. The exceptional results were attributed to the intimate contact between the K-modified Co₉S₈ phase and the Co-promoted Mo-S phase [167]. Furthermore, Mo-based catalysts with active centers such as MoP, MoO_x and Mo₂C have also demonstrated commendable performance in HAS [168,178–180]. Consequently, Mo-based catalysts are considered as promising alternatives to noble-metal based catalysts. However, it should be noted that Mo-based catalysts require harsh reaction conditions, often requiring temperatures of approximately 300 °C and pressures of 10 MPa, which currently leads to difficulties in its industrial application.

Moreover, considerable research efforts have been dedicated to the development of modified Fischer-Tropsch-Synthesis-based catalysts for the synthesis of higher alcohols [180–182]. Among the metal catalysts, Co has shown enhanced HAS activity owing to its superior carbon chain growth capability [120] and relatively low water-gas shift reaction activity [183]. However, Co also exhibits a strong tendency to dissociate CO, requiring exploration of different Co sites and the addition of

suitable additives to suppress excessive hydrogenation. For this purpose, Gao et al. synthesized CuCo-layered double hydroxides (LDHs) on the surface of carbon nanotubes. The resulting Cu-Co alloy exhibited excellent dispersion, facilitated by the robust interaction between CuCo-LDHs and CNTs. The high thermal conductivity of the catalyst effectively inhibited the formation of hydrocarbons and CO₂, thus imparting favorable selectivity towards higher alcohols [169]. In addition to different promoters, the presence of diverse Co sites on catalysts has proven beneficial for HAS [60]. The Co₁/CeO₂ catalyst, for instance, provides enhanced opportunities for the synthesis of higher alcohols through the synergistic effects of two types of Co sites: dissociative adsorption CO sites (Co⁰) and non-dissociative adsorption CO sites (Co^{δ+}) [170]. Furthermore, the incorporation of Co₂C sites has been demonstrated to effectively increase HA selectivity. The La_{0.9}K_{0.1}Co_xFe_{1-x}O₃/ZrO₂ catalyst, derived from perovskite precursors, exhibits abundant oxygen vacancy sites due to the incorporation of Fe. The synergistic interplay among three distinct sites, namely Co⁰, Co₂C, and oxygen vacancy sites, confers exceptional catalytic activity to the system [171]. Generally, FTS-based catalysts hold tremendous potential for the conversion of syngas into higher alcohols owing to their cost-effectiveness, mild reaction conditions, and favorable catalytic activity.

Cu-based catalysts, particularly Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃, have emerged as prominent catalysts for methanol synthesis, gaining extensive research attention over the past century [114,184–186]. These modified Cu-based catalysts possess remarkable potential for HAS owing to the exceptional non-dissociative CO-adsorption properties of Cu. Similarly, to Cu-based systems in CO₂ hydrogenation to HA, alkali promoters have proven beneficial to increase HA selectivity from syngas. Sun et al. investigated the influence of Cs on the performance of Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalysts. The presence of Cs facilitated the coupling of pivotal intermediates such as *HCO and *H₂CO, thereby leading to improved selectivity towards higher alcohols [172]. Besides, phosphorus-promoted Cu-Zn-Al catalysts, devoid of alkali or FTS metals, exhibited commendable performance. The phosphorus addition increased the quantity of weak acid sites on the catalyst, facilitated the reduction of Cu⁺ species, and promoted the synergistic effects between Cu and Al [174]. In brief, modified Cu-based catalysts for methanol synthesis also bare potential in HA synthesis. Overall, in recent years, catalysts for the conversion of syngas to higher alcohols have made considerable progress, wherefore a significant increase in market share of HAS from syngas is to be expected.

4.2.3. Combined RWGS reaction with syngas-to-HA

It is apparent from the chapters above, that considerable progress has been made in catalyst research for both RWGS and syngas conversion

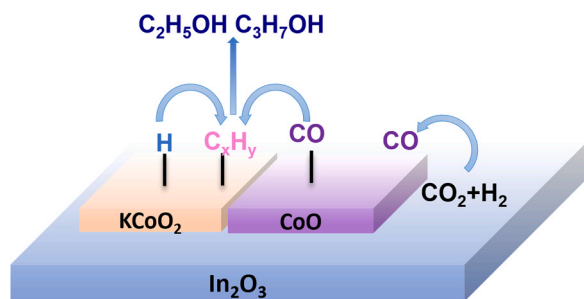


Fig. 12. Proposed mechanism for the formation of hydrocarbon and oxygenated products over K-Co-In₂O₃ catalyst.

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reactions, and that the combination of these two state-of-the-art reactions may enable a more efficient conversion of CO₂ to higher alcohols. In fact, Kusama et al. proposed a widely accepted mechanism for the generation of CO by RWGS followed by further reactions to produce higher alcohols during CO₂ hydrogenation [98]. As shown in Fig. 3, CO₂ initially reacts via the RWGS reaction to form CO* intermediates, which are subsequently dissociated to CH₃* and then further hydrogenated to form hydrocarbons. However, undissociated CO* can also be inserted into CH₃* to form ethanol. As previously mentioned, this CO-mediated mechanism [25] is a widely accepted mechanism for a significant fraction of CO₂-to-HA catalysts [37,44,187–189]. In recent years, multiple research groups effectively employed in situ DRIFTS as a powerful technique to investigate the formation of various reaction intermediates under reaction conditions. Amongst, CO species, generated by RWGS reaction, were identified as a crucial reaction intermediate on a variety of different catalysts, ranging from K-CuMgZnFe over Na-Co/SiO₂ to K-Co-In₂O₃ [46,117,131]. Moreover, the suggested reaction mechanism presented by Witton et al. within their investigation of K-Co-In₂O₃ catalysts underscores its alignment with the CO-mediated pathway, as depicted in Fig. 12. They proposed that the existence of oxygen defects on the In₂O₃ surface promotes the transformation of CO₂ into CO, with KCoO₂ and CoO species assuming crucial responsibilities in the dissociation of CO and the subsequent insertion of CO into the C_xH_y

intermediates that arise from CO dissociation. This complex series of stages ultimately leads to the synthesis of higher alcohols [131].

Drawing support from the CO-mediated mechanism, it is reasonable to consider a physically mixed catalysts approach to harness the CO generated from the RWGS reaction for subsequent syngas conversion to synthesize higher alcohols. For example, the two-stage bed reaction system by Guo et al. (illustrated in Fig. 13a) combined the low-temperature RWGS catalyst CuZnK_{0.15} with the high-temperature modified FTS Cu₂₅Fe₂₂Co₃K₃ catalyst to obtain a CO₂ conversion of 32.4% and a mixed alcohol yield of 131 mg mL⁻¹ h⁻¹ at 350 °C and 6 MPa [39]. The authors identified a combination of a thermal coupling and product coupling effect between the two-stages to be responsible for the catalytic performance. The effect of catalyst proximity on CuZnAl/K-CuMgZnFe catalysts on the catalytic performance was studied by Xu et al. and is visualized in Fig. 13(b) [63]. The HA selectivity initially increases with increasing proximity but ultimately decreases as the two catalysts become less distant from each other. This again highlights the sensitivity of catalyst proximity in tandem catalytic systems. Furthermore, it is crucial to address certain issues and consider the following specific recommendations to attain an optimized catalyst design:

(1) The reaction conditions are the key factor to consider first, due to the different thermodynamic limitations of the RWGS reaction (Table 1 entry 2) and the formation of higher alcohols (Table 1 entries 4–6). Hence, the successful implementation of a tandem reaction system requires combining components that exhibit robust RWGS reaction activity at low temperatures and showcase HAS activity at elevated temperatures.

(2) Although Cu-Zn-Al catalyst systems stand as exemplary RWGS active components, it is worth noting that a series of metal or metal oxide catalysts such as Fe, In, Ce, Zr, also demonstrate commendable RWGS activity. These catalysts present intriguing prospects and merit comprehensive exploration to assess their viability as potential alternatives to the Cu-Zn-Al system.

(3) It is crucial to recognize that different catalysts correspond to distinct reaction mechanisms, which result in performance variations. Consequently, the performance of catalysts in different mixing modes is not necessarily transferable. It is therefore worthwhile to explore different mixing modes of multiple catalysts to make HAS more

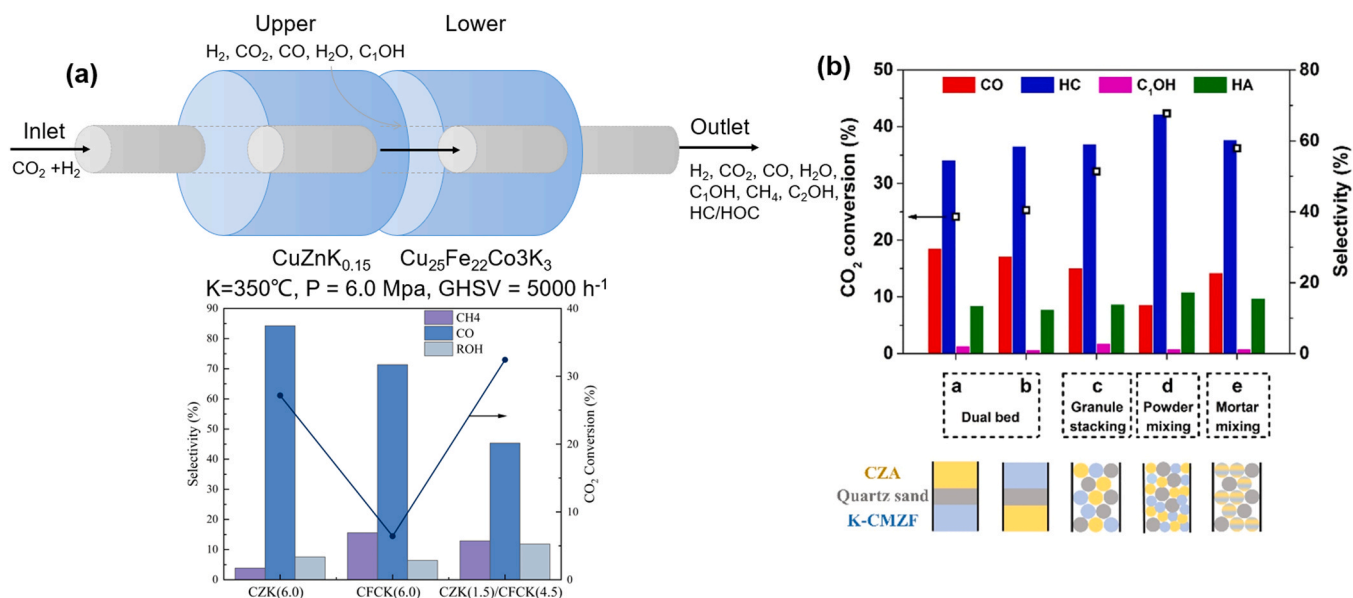


Fig. 13. (a) A two-stage bed reaction system designed by Guo et al. for the synthesis of higher alcohols by CO₂ hydrogenation. (b) CO₂ conversion and products selectivity. Reaction conditions: 5 MPa, CO₂/H₂ = 1/3, 6 L g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹, and 320 °C. CZA: CuZnAl and CMZF: CuMgZnFe.

(a) Reprinted with permission from Ref. [39]. Results of CO₂ hydrogenation over the catalysts packed in different manners. (b) Reprinted with permission from Ref. [63].

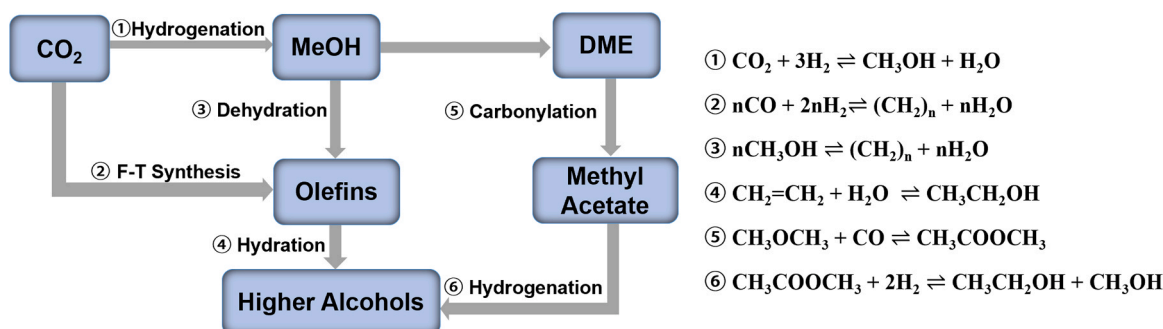


Fig. 14. Multiple synthesis routes of CO_2 -to-HA based on olefins as key intermediates.

desirable.

4.3. Combined CO_2 to olefins and olefins to alcohols

The hydration of olefins to higher alcohols is already a well-established process. Its combination with an efficient CO_2 conversion to olefins would therefore enable a novel tandem pathway for the synthesis of higher alcohols. In general, the conversion of CO_2 to olefins can be categorized into two primary pathways (Fig. 14): (i) the direct hydrogenation of CO_2 to olefins, and (ii) the indirect conversion, predominantly through the hydrogenation of CO_2 to methanol followed by its subsequent conversion to olefins. Within the latter pathway, the Methanol-to-Olefins (MTO) process also consists of two key routes. The first involves the direct dehydration of methanol to yield olefins, while the second entails the dehydration of methanol to Dimethyl Ether (DME), followed by the conversion of DME to olefins. Notably, the DME to olefins route represents a promising emerging process due to lower energy requirements and reduced equipment costs compared to traditional MTO.[190] However, it must be noted that HAS via the DME pathway results in at least four distinctive reaction steps and thus growing complexity. As a result, this discussion will primarily focus on the following two processes: (1) the direct hydrogenation of CO_2 to olefins and (2) the hydrogenation of CO_2 to methanol, subsequently followed by its conversion to olefins. Fig. 14 gives an overview of different synthesis routes for CO_2 hydrogenation to higher alcohols via olefins intermediates.

4.3.1. Hydrogenation of CO_2 to olefins via FTS route

Currently, light olefins are mainly produced by thermal cracking of crude oil-based naphtha, a process that not only requires large amounts of energy but also emits large quantities of CO_2 [191]. The direct

conversion of CO_2 to light olefins is therefore not only attractive because of potential cost savings but also mitigates the greenhouse effect of CO_2 . As mentioned above, the direct hydrogenation of CO_2 to olefins consists of consecutive RWGS reaction (Table 1 entry 2) and FTS reaction (Eq. 4) [192]. The latter reaction is mainly catalyzed by Fe-based, Co-based and Ni-based systems, while the direct CO_2 hydrogenation to olefins is predominantly catalyzed by Fe-based catalysts due to their lower methanation activity at high reaction temperatures [122],[193]. In recent years, various promoted Fe-based catalysts have been investigated in the FTS-to-olefins process with a special focus on possible promoters. As a result, a regulation of electronic properties was attributed to alkali metal promoters, such as K, Na, Rb, and Cs, while transition metal promoters, including Zn, Co, Cu, V, and Mn, have been utilized to modulate the catalyst's structure [194–199]. In addition, multiple studies highlighted the optimization potential of supported Fe-based catalysts owing to

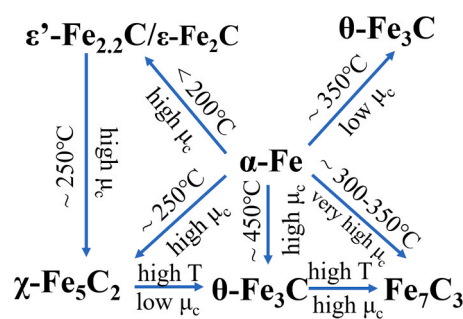


Fig. 16. Conditions of iron carbide phases transformation. Reprinted with permission from Ref.[207].

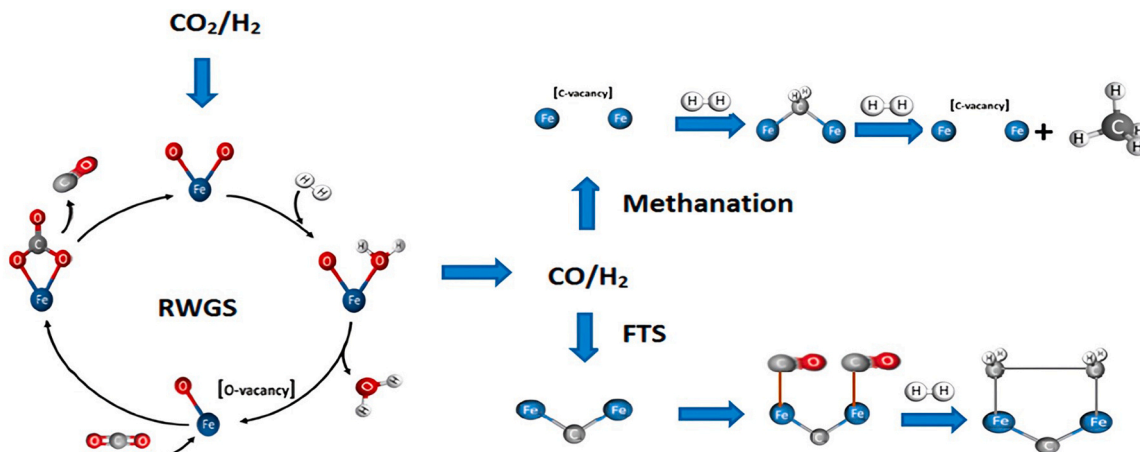


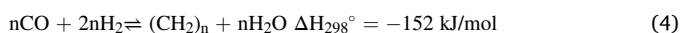
Fig. 15. Schematic diagram of RWGS, FTS and methanation reactions for CO_2 hydrogenation on Fe-based catalysts. Reprinted with permission from Ref.[203].

Table 5Recent catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins via FTS route.

Catalyst	H ₂ /CO ratio	T ^a /°C	p ^b /MPa	WHSV ^c /L·g _{cat} ⁻¹ ·h ⁻¹	X ^d _{CO₂} /%	S ^e _{olefins} /%	S ^f _{CH₄} /%
10Mn-Fe ₃ O ₄ [198]	3	350	2	4	44.7	46.2(C ₂ -C ₄)	22
5%Na-Fe-oxide[208]	3	290	1.5	10	34.7	62(C ₂ -C ₇)	26
Na-Zn-Fe[194]	3	340	2.5	15	38	42(C ₂ -C ₄)	13
C-2Fe-1Zn/K[209]	3	320	2	1	54.8	54.1(C ₂ -C ₄)	21.7
Co ₁ Fe ₂ [210]	3	320	2	8	40.9	42.5(C ₂ -C ₄)	22.9
ZnCo _{0.5} Fe _{1.5} O ₄ [197]	3	320	2.5	4.8	49.6	36.1(C ₂ -C ₄)	18.9
NaSrFe[211]	3	320	3	8	40.5	24.9(C ₂ -C ₃)	8.9
FeNa/ZrO ₂ [212]	3	320	2	9	32.7	65.2(C ₂ -C ₇)	26.7
15Fe-K/m-ZrO ₂ [213]	3	320	1.5	10	38.8	42.8(C ₂ -C ₄)	30.1
Fe-Co/K-CL-Al ₂ O ₃ [214]	3	360	2	5.4	41.6	41.2(C ₂ -C ₄)	32.2
0.58%Zn-FeCo/K-Al ₂ O ₃ [215]	3	340	2	9	46.5	40.4(C ₂ -C ₄)	n.a.
0.8Fe-0.1 K@N-OMC[216]	3	320	3	4.8	54.5	60.4(C ₂ -C ₄)	12.8

^a Temperature,^b pressure,^c weight hourly space velocity,^d CO₂ conversion,^e selectivity to light olefins (CO-free),^f selectivity to methane.

different metal-support interactions [200–202].



The specific pathways for both olefin and methane formation over Fe-based catalysts were summarized by Landau et al. (Fig. 15) [203]. Throughout the reaction, Fe exists in various forms and undergoes continuous evolution, wherein different types of Fe play distinct roles [204]. Notably, Fe₃O₄ displays high activity in the RWGS reaction, while Fe⁰ and Fe-carbides exhibit the capacity to adsorb and activate CO, leading to the formation of hydrocarbons [205]. These distinctive reactivities can be attributed to the different structures of the iron carbides formed during Fe carburization. Recent advancements in in situ characterization techniques enabled researchers to identify several critical phases of Fe during carburization, including χ -Fe₅C₂, θ -Fe₃C, ϵ -Fe_{2.2}C, ϵ -Fe₂C, and Fe₇C₃ [206]. The phase transition conditions of various iron carbides are summarized in Fig. 16 [207]. Despite recent progress in identifying active species, the dynamic and complex nature of the carbide phases poses significant barriers in elucidating comprehensive structure-activity relationships.

Table 5 provides an overview of recently published catalysts for the CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins. The group of Jiang identified a Mn-modification of Fe₃O₄-microsphere catalysts to facilitate the reduction of Fe₃O₄, ultimately preventing excessive hydrogenation of intermediates and leading to excellent light olefins selectivity [198]. It is noteworthy to mention the promotional effect of Na on iron oxide catalysts as Wei et al. achieved remarkable selectivity towards C₂-C₇ olefins over such catalysts [208]. In situ XRD and in situ Raman spectroscopy investigations confirm that the interaction between Na and the catalyst inhibits the hydrogenation of surface Fe₅C₂ and graphitic carbon species, thereby suppressing alkane formation.

Besides, bimetallic Fe-based catalysts display impressive activity in olefin synthesis, with the Co₁Fe₂ bimetallic catalyst derived from CoFe₂O₄ spinel exhibiting an activity of 1810.8 mg g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹, surpassing that of conventional Fe-based catalysts. In situ XRD, Mössbauer effect spectroscopy (MES), Temperature-programmed hydrogenation (TPH), and XPS analyses reveal a structural evolution of Co₁Fe₂ over CoFe₂O₄ → (Co_xFe_{1-x})O → Co_xFe_y → χ -(Co_xFe_{1-x})₅C₂, which promotes olefin synthesis [210]. Similar trends were observed over another spinel-based ZnCo_{0.5}Fe_{1.5}O₄ catalyst. Its excellent performance can be attributed to several factors: (1) the addition of Co reduces the χ -Fe₅C₂ phase responsible for C-C coupling, thus weakening its coupling ability; (2) the CoFe alloy promotes the formation of Co₂C species, effectively inhibiting methanation; (3) formation of the θ -Fe₃C phase weakens the catalysts hydrogenation ability and prevents secondary hydrogenation

of alkanes [197].

Additionally, the choice of catalyst supports in Fe-based catalysts significantly influences the catalyst's structure and performance evolution [217]. Liu et al. investigated the impact of various supports (SiO₂, Al₂O₃, CNT, and ZrO₂) on the synthesis of olefins by CO₂ hydrogenation. The results indicate that the supports regulate the Fe₃O₄/Fe_xC_y ratio as well as the composition of Fe_xC_y. Notably, ZrO₂ with a carbon-rich surface possesses a stronger modulating ability and weaker H₂ adsorption ability, resulting in lower methane selectivity [212]. Moreover, different crystalline forms of the same support and varying pore sizes also naturally contribute to performance disparities [213,215].

In conclusion, it can be stated that the influence of both promoters as well as supports in Fe-based catalysts on the product distribution in the CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins through the FTS route has been extensively researched. Current catalysts display notable differences in CO₂ conversion, ranging from 32.7% to 54.8%. This signifies the excellent ability of these catalysts to activate CO₂. Moreover, the selectivity towards light olefins falls within a desirable range of 36.1% to 60.4% (C₂-C₄). However, although most catalysts achieve remarkably low CH₄ selectivity, few Fe-based systems still struggle with undesirably high methanation activity. Based on the aforementioned literature analysis, it is evident that additives and supports contribute to the formation of specific active phases, which in turn fulfill distinct functionalities in their respective catalytic cycles. Consequently, the key to design a selective catalyst for CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins lies in the adjustment of the various active phases present during the reaction. By reasonably regulating the ratio of each phase, catalysts can be tailored to maximize olefin production, thereby establishing a foundation for subsequent olefin hydration to higher alcohols.

4.3.2. CO₂ to olefins via methanol synthesis route

The second pathway to synthesize olefins from CO₂ hydrogenation, besides the FTS route, involves methanol synthesis followed by methanol-to-olefins (MTO) reactions. It can be categorized into two subtypes: (i) The hydrogenation of CO₂ forms methanol as a reaction product, which is converted in a separate MTO reaction. (ii) The methanol-mediated route involves methanol only as a crucial intermediate in the reaction, which is subsequently converted to light olefins. Regardless of the chosen pathway, the approach involving methanol as an intermediate always encompasses the CO₂-to-methanol reaction and the subsequent MTO reaction (refer to Table 1, entry 3 and Eq. 5).



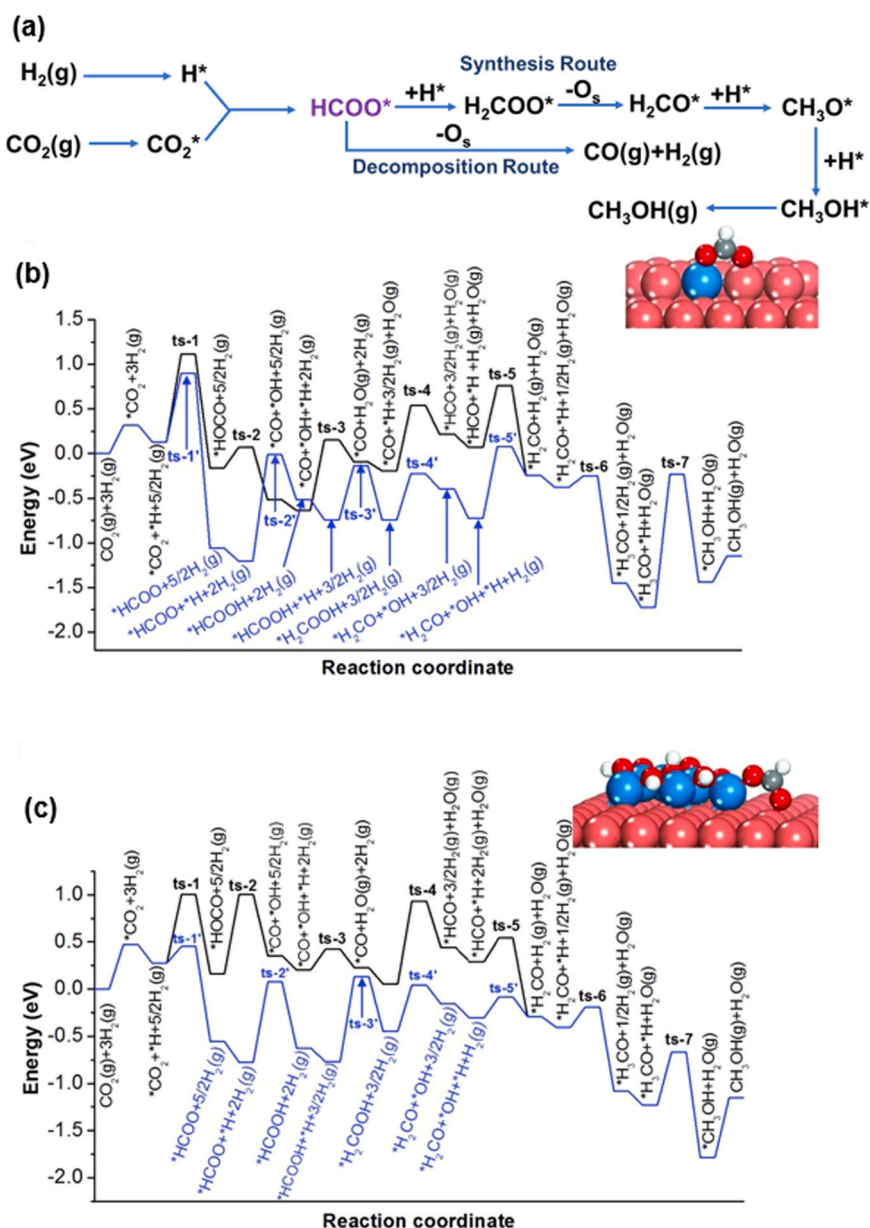


Fig. 17. (a) The methanol synthesis mechanism for the reaction on ZnO. ts, transition state. (Inset) Structures of HCOO^* on ZnCu(211) (b) and ZnO/Cu(111) (c). Cu, brown; Zn, blue; O, red; H, white; C, gray.

(a) Reprinted with permission from Ref. [220] Potential energy diagram for the hydrogenation of $\text{CO}_2(\text{g})$ to $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}(\text{g})$ on (b) ZnCu(211) and (c) ZnO/Cu(111) via the formate and RWGS + CO-hydro pathways. (b) Reprinted with permission from Ref. [221].

4.3.2.1. CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol. The synthesis of methanol from CO_2 hydrogenation (Table 1 entry 3) has been extensively studied since the beginning of the last century [218]. Among a multitude of different catalysts, Cu/Zn/Al₂O₃, invented by ICI, has emerged as one of the most active catalysts for methanol synthesis from CO_2 hydrogenation [219]. In 1983, Bowker proposed a first reaction mechanism via a crucial formate intermediate as depicted in Fig. 17 (a). Here, hydrogen initially dissociates and subsequently reacts with adsorbed CO_2 to form a formate intermediate, which is then further hydrogenated to produce methanol [220].

In a significant contribution to the understanding of Cu/ZnO catalysts, Kattel et al. have provided a comprehensive elucidation of the active site involved in these catalytic systems. The authors employed DFT calculations to investigate the mechanism of CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol over ZnCu(211) (Fig. 17b) and ZnO/Cu(111) (Fig. 17c) model catalysts, considering two primary reaction pathways: (i) the RWGS

reaction producing CO intermediates, which are then hydrogenated to methanol (RWGS + CO-hydro pathway), and (ii) CO_2 hydrogenation to HCOO^* intermediates, followed by hydrogenation and dissociation to methanol (formate pathway). The authors concluded that the formate pathway is favored on both ZnCu(211) and ZnO/Cu(111) sites due to hindered CO^* and CHO^* hydrogenation in the RWGS + CO-hydro pathway. Experimental and computational results indicate that CO_2 activation over ZnO/Cu(111) and ZnCu(211) follows similar patterns after ZnCu undergoes surface oxidation under reaction conditions, transforming Zn into ZnO, ultimately enabling comparable activity to ZnO/Cu sites [221]. Due to their excellent performance and toxicity resistance, Cu/ZnO-based catalysts remain promising candidates for achieving short-term CO_2 emission reductions via methanol synthesis [222]. Research based on non-traditional Cu/ZnO catalysts proved challenging in several aspects, mostly due to thermodynamic limitations, low selectivity, and low stability. Hence, only by overcoming these

difficulties Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalysts can eventually be replaced by the next generation of catalysts.

In recent years, a series of In₂O₃-based catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol have entered the limelight. Various synthesis methods and pretreatments have been employed to prepare In₂O₃ catalysts with abundant oxygen vacancy sites for efficient CO₂ activation [223]. Notably, Shi et al. successfully prepared In₂O₃ with controlled mixed phases (i.e., comprising cubic and hexagonal phases) using a solvothermal method. Their investigation presented a pronounced mixed-crystal effect, leading to a significant enhancement in oxygen vacancy formation and medium-strength CO₂ adsorption. The mixed-phase catalyst achieved nearly 70% methanol selectivity and a STY of 3.2 mmol_{MeOH} g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ at 300 °C, 3 MPa and 7500 mL g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹, which nearly doubled the activity of its single-phase counterpart. [224] Interestingly, promoting In₂O₃ with ZrO₂ can modify its electronic structure, thereby increasing the number of oxygen vacancies in In₂O₃ and facilitating the synthesis of methanol [56]. Yang et al. discovered strong electronic interactions between In₂O₃ and monoclinic ZrO₂ (m-ZrO₂) in the In₂O₃/m-ZrO₂ catalyst. This interaction resulted in a methanol selectivity of up to 84.6% and a CO₂ conversion of 12.1%. Investigations by in situ Raman spectroscopy revealed the presence of highly dispersed In-O-In structures on m-ZrO₂. XPS studies and DFT calculations further validated that the electron transfer between m-ZrO₂ and In₂O₃ increased the electron density of In₂O₃, promoting the formation of formate intermediates and thus enhancing methanol yield [225].

Moreover, supported Ni/In₂O₃ catalysts demonstrated exceptional catalytic performance, again as a result of enhanced oxygen vacancy formation and highly dispersed Ni species that facilitated strong metal-support interactions. Remarkably, this catalyst exhibited exclusive methanol selectivity below 225 °C, while at 275 °C and 5 MPa, it still achieved a methanol selectivity of 64% with a CO₂ conversion of 18.5%, resulting in a methanol yield of 17.6 mmol_{MeOH} g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ [226]. Another notable example is the Co₃O₄@In₂O₃ composite oxide catalyst prepared by a MOF-mediated method, which achieved a remarkable maximum methanol STY of 20.8 mmol_{MeOH} g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹. Impressively, this catalyst maintained a high methanol selectivity of 87% even after 100 h of continuous operation under industrial conditions. The exceptional performance of this catalyst is attributed to the structural tunability of MOF-derived catalysts, enabling the optimized distribution of In dopants within the metal-organic matrix, thereby enhancing In utilization for outstanding catalytic performance. [227].

In addition to In₂O₃-based catalysts, another noteworthy catalytic system is the ZnO-ZrO₂ catalyst [228–234]. Wang et al. reported a binary metal oxide ZnO-ZrO₂ solid solution catalyst, which exhibits excellent methanol synthesis activity and extraordinary stability for 500 h [228]. At 5 MPa and 315 to 320 °C, methanol selectivity reaches as high as 86% to 91%, respectively. Both experimental results and theoretical calculations indicate that the excellent catalytic activity can be attributed to the synergistic effect between the Zn and Zr sites. Moreover, the ZnO-ZrO₂ catalysts also possess sintering resistance at high temperatures and show anti-sulfur poisoning properties, advantages not available in the Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃-based catalysts. Wang et al. explored the interactions among these three components by introducing a Cu component into ZnO-ZrO₂ [229]. The resulting Cu-ZnO-ZrO₂ catalyst exhibits high activity for methanol production with 18.2% CO₂ conversion and 80.2% methanol selectivity at 220 °C and 3 MPa. Furthermore, Han et al. synthesized a ZnO-ZrO₂ solid solution through an evaporation-induced self-assembly (EISA) process, leading to an ordered mesoporous structure [231]. The catalyst exhibits a high methanol STY of 22.1 mmol_{MeOH} g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ at 320 °C and 5.5 MPa. Various characterization results indicate that the excellent activity is related to the larger specific surface area and an increased number of H₂ and CO₂ activation sites of the catalyst.

In summary, the current generation of Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃-based catalysts has demonstrated the capability for industrial application in

methanol synthesis (MS). In₂O₃-based and ZnO-ZrO₂-based catalysts prepared through various methods possess significant potential to replace the traditional Cu/ZnO/Al₂O₃ catalysts. Consequently, utilizing methanol synthesis catalysts for efficient methanol production, followed by the indirect production of olefins, is a highly reliable approach.

4.3.2.2. Methanol-to-olefin. In 1977, researchers at Mobil Oil Corporation initially discovered that, under a sub-atmospheric pressure condition, methanol can be selectively transformed into a mixture of light olefins using zeolite catalysts like HZSM-5, triggering extensive attention [235]. Subsequently, Chang et al. optimized the reaction parameters for methanol-to-olefins (Eq.5) over ZSM-5 catalysts in a fixed-bed reactor. They found that combining high temperature (e.g., 500 °C) and low catalyst acidity (e.g., SiO₂/Al₂O₃ = 1670) favor the synthesis of light olefins. The authors achieved a methanol conversion of 98.2% under 0.1 MPa pressure and LSHV of 10 h⁻¹ [236]. However, the susceptibility of ZSM-5 to form coke on its external surface, accompanied by poisoning of active sites or pore blockage, results in catalyst deactivation [237]. Therefore, research attention shifted towards SAPO-34 zeolite catalysts, which possess unique pore sizes and geometric shapes. In comparison to ZSM-5, SAPO-34 has a reduced pore size of 3.5 Å, restricting the diffusion of heavy hydrocarbons and branched alkanes, thereby enhancing the selectivity towards light olefins [238,239]. Additionally, SAPO-34 exhibits milder acidity than ZSM-5, reducing the extent of hydrogen transfer reactions and suppressing the formation of paraffinic products [240]. Marchi and Froment investigated the catalytic activity of SAPO-34 catalysts in the MTO reaction and identified pores with diameters smaller than 0.45 nm as well as Brønsted acid sites from aluminum hydroxyl groups to play a crucial role in synthesizing light olefins. At 480 °C and 0.1 MPa, the authors achieved nearly 100% methanol conversion and high selectivity towards C_{2–4} olefins (i.e., 90% to 95% in the hydrocarbon product fraction). [241].

This high catalytic efficiency translates to a high industrial applicability of MTO processes. Currently, there are mainly four industrial MTO technologies, namely: (i) D-MTO by Dalian Institute of Chemical Physics (DICP), (ii) S-MTO by Sinopec, (iii) MTO by UOP/Norsk Hydro, and (iv) MTP by Lurgi. [240] Table 6 summarizes the technical parameters of the industrial installations of MTO technologies. It becomes apparent that SAPO-34 zeolites are the most commonly employed catalysts, and the reaction generally occurs at 400–550 °C and 1–5 atm.

However, despite its already established industrial success, future research on MTO-catalysts may focus on enhancing SAPO-34's resistance to coke deposition, further optimizing SAPO-34 performance, and exploring new zeolite components to achieve higher yields. In summary, the MTO process to convert methanol into olefins is a mature process and consequently holds great promise as part in an integrated CO₂-to-olefin process.

4.3.2.3. Synthesis of light olefins via methanol-mediated route. Although the FTS route from CO₂ to olefins has made significant progress, it is imperative to acknowledge the inherent limitations associated with this approach. One notable challenge lies in the intricate manipulation of the C-C bond on the surface of FTS catalysts [192.] Furthermore, conventional FTS catalysts encounter difficulties in surpassing the Anderson-Schulz-Flory (ASF) product distribution, which naturally imposes constraints on the C_{2–4} selectivity. In contrast, implementing methanol synthesis (MS) catalysts offers a promising alternative to address these limitations and achieve higher olefin selectivity. Typical composite catalysts often consist of metal oxides like CuO, ZnO, In₂O₃ in combination with zeolites. Table 7 provides some MS-based zeolite-modified catalysts for the CO₂-to-Olefins process.

Tan et al. evaluated the performance of a mixed catalyst consisting of In₂O₃/ZrO₂ metal oxide and SAPO-34 zeolite for CO₂ to olefins conversion. Remarkably, this synergistic combination yielded an exceptional light olefins selectivity of 77.6% [242]. Fig. 18 depicts the

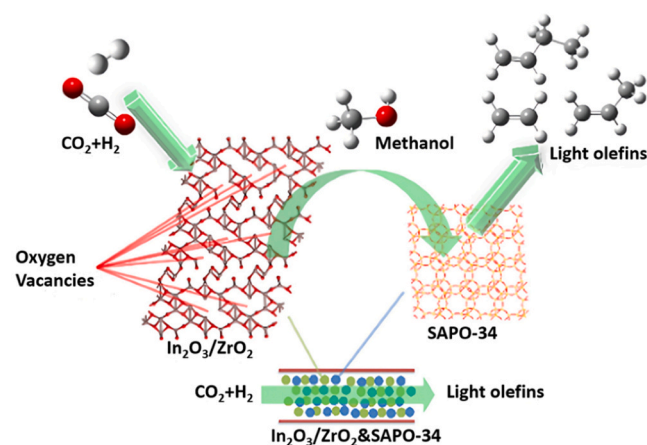
Table 6

Industrial installations of the methanol-to-olefins technology (pilot/demonstration-scale or commercial-scale, post-2000) [240].

No.	MTO technology	Licensor/operator	Scale	Catalyst	Process conditions (T, p, WHSV)	Catalyst performance (C, S, Y)
1	UOP/Hydro advanced MTO (with olefin cracking)	UOP (Feluy, Belgium)	0.2 MM MTPA	SAPO-34 (attrition-resistant formulation)	400–550 °C, 1–4 atm	~100%, 80%+ C-selectivity to C ₂ , C ₃ , olefins
2	D-MTO (Dalian Institute of Chemical Physics)	Shenhua China Energy (Mongolia, China)	0.6 TPA	SAPO-34	400–550 °C, 4–5 atm	N/A
3	S-MTO (Sinopec MTO)	Sinopec	0.2 MM TPA	SAPO-34	400–550 °C, 1–5 atm	N/A
4	MTP (Lurgi)	Shenhua Group with Ningxia Provincial Govt. (Ningxia, China)	0.5 MM TPA	SAPO-34	N/A	N/A
5	MTP (Lurgi)	Datang Int'l Power with China Datang (Mongolia, China)	0.5 MM TPA	SAPO-34	N/A	N/A
6	Honeywell UOP	Jiangsu Sailboat Petrochemical company (Jiangsu Province, China)	0.8 MM TPA	SAPO-34	400–550 °C, 1–5 atm	~100%, ~85% to C ₂ +C ₃
7	Honeywell UOP	Wison China Energy (Ningxia Province, China)	0.3 MM TPA	SAPO-34	400–550 °C, 1–5 atm	~100%, ~85% to C ₂ +C ₃

Table 7Recent catalysts for CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins via the methanol-mediated route.

Catalyst	H ₂ /CO ratio	T ^a /°C	p ^b /MPa	WHSV ^c /L·g ⁻¹ ·h ⁻¹	X ^d _{CO₂} /%	S ^e _{C₂-C₄} /%	S ^f _{CH₄} /%
In ₂ O ₃ /ZrO ₂ -SAPO-34[242]	2.65	400	2	2.16	20.17	77.59	5.35
NiCu/CeO ₂ -SAPO-34[243]	3	375	2	12	17	78	2.1
(CuO-ZnO)-kaolin-SAPO-34[244]	3	400	3	1.8	57.6	63.8	11.4
ZnAl ₂ O ₄ /SAPO-34[245]	3	370	3	5.4	15	87	0.7
6.7%ZnO-Y ₂ O ₃ /SAPO-34[246]	4	390	4	1.8	27.6	83.9	1.8
In ₂ O ₃ -ZnZrO _x -SAPO-34-S-a[247]	3.04	380	3	9	17	85	1.6
Zn _{0.5} Ce _{0.2} Zr _{1.8} O ₄ /H-RUB-13[248]	6	350	3.5	4.8	30.1	72.7	6.4
ZnZrO _x -Bio-ZSM-5[249]	3	380	3	2	10	64.4	< 5
Fe/K-6Ca/ZSM-5[250]	3	375	3	5	47	38	15
InCeZrO _x /H-SAPO-34[251]	3	300	3	4	6.6	85.6	3.8
In ₂ O ₃ -ZrO ₂ /SAPO-5 (0.3Si)[252]	3	300	3	4	6.7	83	2

^a Temperature,^b pressure,^c weight hourly space velocity,^d CO₂ conversion,^e selectivity to C₂-C₄ (CO-free),^f selectivity to methane.**Fig. 18.** Process of CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins over In₂O₃/ZrO₂-SAPO34 catalyst proposed by Tan et al.

Reprinted with permission from Ref. [242].

proposed reaction pathway, wherein CO₂ and H₂ initially form methanol on the oxygen vacancy surface of In₂O₃/ZrO₂. Subsequently, methanol traverses the intricate network of SAPO-34 zeolite channels, facilitating its transformation into light olefins. Similarly, Wang et al. designed (CuO-ZnO)-kaolin-SAPO-34 catalysts by leveraging kaolinite as a precursor, facilitating an even dispersion of CuO-ZnO particles on its

surface and leading to maximized exposure of active sites for CO₂ conversion. Furthermore, the (CuO-ZnO)-kaolin-SAPO-34 catalysts exhibited a domain-limiting effect, effectively impeding methanol dissipation and thus enhancing MTO efficiency.[244].

Another noteworthy composite catalyst was developed by combining Zn_{0.5}Ce_{0.2}Zr_{1.8}O₄ with H-RUB-13 zeolite. This composite catalyst displayed notable activity for propylene and butene production. In-depth characterization by in situ DRIFTS, XPS, as well as DFT calculations elucidated the pivotal role of the rapid generation of methanol on Zn_{0.5}Ce_{0.2}Zr_{1.8}O₄, which subsequently facilitated its conversion to olefins over the H-RUB-13 zeolite. Furthermore, an increased Si/Al ratio in the zeolite framework alleviated the excessive hydrogenation of olefins and promoted the diffusion of propylene and butene from the zeolite structure [248]. Finally, the group of Li designed a layered porous bio-ZSM-5 derived from natural rice husk as a template and mixed it with ZnZrO_x nanoparticles to prepare a multifunctional catalyst for CO₂ hydrogenation to light olefins. Bio-ZSM-5 showed better catalytic activity and stability compared with commercial ZSM-5. The in situ DRIFTS results shed light on the crucial role of *CH_xO as the key intermediate formed over ZnZrO_x, which subsequently migrated to the acid sites on bio-ZSM-5, leading to the formation of olefins [249].

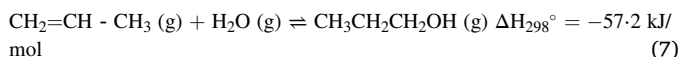
As shown in Table 7, SAPO-34 and ZSM-5 zeolites are the most commonly employed zeolite materials to catalyze the synthesis of olefins via the methanol-mediated route at 300–400 °C and 2–4 MPa. This exceptional research interest may be attributed to the hierarchical pore structure and moderate amount of Brønsted acid sites of SAPO-34 [247], which enable effective inhibition of methanation and high selectivity for light olefins. ZSM-5, on the other hand, has demonstrated a tendency for

synthesizing aromatics [253–255], while displaying comparably lower selectivity for light olefins. Based on the currently rather narrow choices of applied zeolites, there is still great potential to explore more suitable porous structures to accomplish a more efficient conversion of methanol to light olefins.

4.3.3. Hydration of olefins to higher alcohols

Hydration of olefins to alcohols is a widely applied industrial process and is currently one of the main sources for alcohol synthesis [256]. It bears the potential to replace grain fermentation methods and thus alleviate the issue of grain shortage. The most representative example of olefin hydration is the production of ethanol through the hydration of ethylene (Eq. 6). The two main pathways for olefin hydration are (i) the sulfuric acid hydration method, which has been to this day largely replaced due to the severe corrosiveness of sulfuric acid by (ii) the direct hydration. In the latter process, proposed by Shell in 1947, ethylene reacts with water vapor to produce ethanol [257].

Acid catalysts, such as phosphoric acid or heteropoly acids, supported on carriers like silica or clay, have practical applications in the vapor-phase hydration of olefins like ethylene or propylene. This process leads to the formation of their respective alcohols (Eqs. 6, 7), [258]. For instance, the production of ethanol from ethylene and water employs a silica-supported phosphoric acid catalyst, operating within the temperature range of 235–265 °C and a reaction pressure of 3–10 MPa [259]. These conditions enable STY_{EtOH} between 98 and 143 g L⁻¹ h⁻¹, while achieving ethylene conversions of 7.8% to 10.4%. The synthesis of iso-propanol, on the other hand, was performed at 185–200 °C and 3.9 MPa over silica-supported phosphoric acid, achieving STY_{iPrOH} between 208 and 238 g L⁻¹ h⁻¹ [259]. However, supported acid catalysts are known to induce reactor corrosion, making it unsuitable for long-term applications [260]. However, various solid acid catalysts, such as metal oxides [261,262], zeolites [256,263], and metal phosphates [260,264], have been discovered and tested in the hydration of olefins, demonstrating excellent activity [258].



Both the CO₂ to olefins and hydration of olefins to alcohols processes have been intensively studied and thus hold tremendous potential to effectively synthesize higher alcohols through their combination in tandem catalysis. Among the many alternatives, three potential combinations are discussed below.

- (1) Combined direct CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins with olefins to alcohols.

Direct CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins generally occurs at 290–360 °C and 1.5–3 MPa, while olefins hydration occurs at lower temperatures (235–265 °C for ethylene and 185–200 °C for propylene) and higher pressures (3–10 MPa) [259]. Integrating both reactions via two separate reactors (Fig. 7, mode ①) lacks efficient heat and mass exchange between them. Although catalyst modification is necessary to match the rather different reaction conditions of both processes, mode ②–⑥ (Fig. 7) in one reactor can be employed to further increase the proximity between the two catalysts. Moreover, catalyst functionalities must be carefully chosen to prevent catalyst internal reactions and ultimately deactivation. For example, the catalysts for direct CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins may contain alkaline metals, which may react with acid functionalities used for olefins hydration. It therefore becomes apparent that rational catalyst design as well as proper selection of the integrating mode is of great importance for an efficient implementation of both reactions.

- (2) Combined CO₂-methanol-olefins synthesis with olefins to alcohols.

As CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol, methanol to olefins, and olefins hydration to alcohols have been intensively studied separately, it is also possible to combine these reactions to synthesize higher alcohols. However, the reaction conditions for these reactions differ. CO₂ hydrogenation to methanol occurs at 200–350 °C and 3–5 MPa, while MTO is conducted at 400–550 °C and 0.1–0.5 MPa [240]. Since this proposed route needs to integrate three reactions, and the reaction temperatures of MTO (> 400 °C) and olefins hydration (< 265 °C) differ significantly as well, the integration into one continuous process poses significant challenges [259].

- (3) Combined methanol mediated CO₂ to olefins with olefins hydration.

CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins via the methanol-mediated route in some cases can be performed at relatively low temperatures. For instance, In₂O₃-ZrO₂/SAPO-5 and InCeZrO_x/H-SAPO-34 catalyze CO₂ to olefins at 300 °C and 3 MPa. These conditions are relatively close to those of olefins hydration (for ethanol synthesis: 235–265 °C; 3–10 MPa [259]), making it possible to integrate the two reactions in one reactor (Fig. 7, mode ②–⑥) and tailoring the proximity between the two catalysts to optimize the heat and mass exchange.

4.3.4. Olefins hydroformylation

Olefins can also undergo metal-catalyzed olefin hydroformylation reactions (Eq. 8), where they react with synthesis gas to form aldehydes. This reaction was first proposed by Otto Roelen in 1938 and has since attracted extensive research in both academia and industry [265]. The produced aldehydes from olefin hydroformylation are important intermediates in large-scale chemical synthesis and can be further converted into widely used alcohols and carboxylic acids. Typical catalysts are homogeneous complexes based on [HM(CO)_xL_y], where L can be either CO or an organic ligand. The activity order of transition metals in hydroformylation follows the order Rh >> Co > Ir, Ru > Os > Pt > Pd >> Fe > Ni. To date, the only industrially applied catalysts are Rh- and Co-based [266]. Rh-based catalysts exhibit the highest hydroformylation activity but suffer from high costs. Co-based catalysts not only have the economic advantage but also display good resistance to toxic components in the feedstock. Franke et al. provided a detailed summary of the practical applications of hydroformylation [267]. It is worth mentioning that tandem catalytic system based on

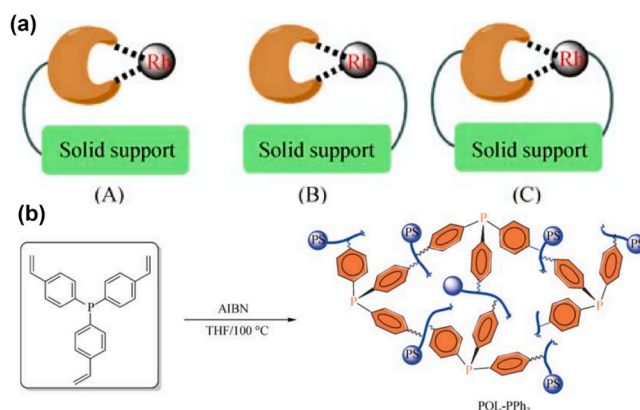
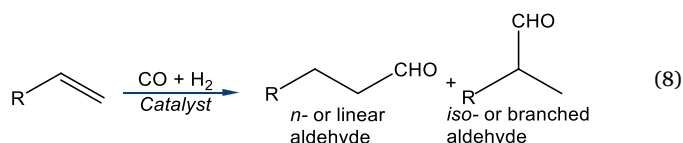


Fig. 19. (a) Strategies to immobilize Rh complex catalysts on solid supports: (A) ligand-immobilized catalysts, (B) Rh-immobilized catalysts, and (C) Rh and ligand simultaneously immobilized catalysts. (b) Synthesis of POL-PPh₃ via solvothermal polymerization of 3 V-PPh₃ ligands. Reprinted with permission from Ref. [275].

Fischer-Tropsch synthesis and reductive hydroformylation have been developed for the synthesis of higher alcohols from syngas. Jeske et al. integrated solid Co-based FTS catalysts and molecular hydroformylation catalysts in tandem in a one-pot slurry phase, and this hybrid system of multiphase and homogeneous catalysis achieved ultra-high CO conversion (>70%) and higher alcohol selectivity (>50 wt%) at 200 °C and 12 MPa. The excellent catalytic activity is attributed to the rapid capture of the FT primary 1-olefin by the molecular hydroformylation catalyst [268].



Recently, there has been a surge of interest in the study of heterogeneous catalysts for hydroformylation [269,270]. Two main strategies are currently explored to achieve the heterogeneous catalytic hydroformylation: solid support immobilized catalysts (Fig. 19 (a)) and porous organic ligand (POL)-supported catalysts (Fig. 19 (b)), both of which have shown promising results [271–274]. The former approach has been extensively investigated over the years, involving Rh immobilization (Fig. 19 (a) (A)), ligands (Fig. 19 (a) (B)), or a combination of both (Fig. 19 (a) (C)) on solid supports to achieve the heterogenization of homogeneous Rh-based catalysts. Unfortunately, these immobilized Rh-based catalysts have shown limitations in terms of their activity and selectivity compared to their homogeneous counterparts.[275] This is mainly attributed to the relatively low utilization of Rh metal and nanoparticles, as well as the low concentration of organic ligands near the metal species in the heterogeneous system.

In contrast, novel porous organic ligand (POL)-supported catalysts offer significant advantages due to their high concentration of crucial phosphine ligands within the catalytic framework. This characteristic facilitates the dispersion of Rh species and promotes the formation of Rh-P multiple bonds,[275] which play an important role in enhancing catalytic activity and stability. Consequently, these catalysts demonstrate great promise for industrial applications. Jiang et al. conducted tests using a series of 3 V-PPh₃ polymer supported single-site Rh catalysts in a fixed-bed reactor for the hydroformylation of olefins. The catalytic performance is summarized in Table 8, with reaction conditions set at 120 °C and 1 MPa. Remarkably, the obtained catalysts not only exhibit excellent catalytic activity and selectivity, achieving 96.2% ethylene conversion and 96.1% aldehyde selectivity, but also demonstrate great stability. Advanced characterization techniques, such as high-angle annular dark-field scanning transmission electron microscopy (HAADF-STEM) and Extended X-Ray Absorption Fine Structure (EXAFS), revealed that Rh atoms exist as single-site species, forming strong coordination bonds with exposed phosphorus atoms over the POL-PPh₃ support. Further analysis through ³¹P MAS NMR and in situ IR experiments confirmed that the outstanding catalytic activity could be attributed to the similarity in catalytic functionality between Rh/POL-PPh₃ and the homogeneous HRh(CO)(PPh₃)₃ complex [276]. While the high cost of Rh still impedes industrial application, the exceptional hydroformylation activity exhibited by the POL-supported

Rh-based catalysts makes them a compelling option to explore and further develop.

The subsequent hydrogenation of aldehydes to alcohols represents a significant industrial method with roots dating back to the mid-twentieth century [277]. Metal catalysts, including Cu, Ni, Co, as well as noble metals such as Pt, Pd, and Ru, are typically employed as the active components in these catalytic processes. Among these, Cu- and Ni-based catalysts are predominantly applied in industrial processes. The reaction temperatures, pressures and space velocities for the hydrogenation of aldehydes range from 150 to 300 °C, 1.5 to 4 MPa, and 3000 to 20000 h⁻¹, respectively [278]. However, industrial processes face a major challenge in suppressing various side reactions, particularly the condensation between aldehydes and alcohols, which results in significant downstream processing difficulties [279].

Generally, this route to synthesize higher alcohols involves the conversion of CO₂ to olefins, followed by olefins hydroformylation, and finally the hydrogenation of aldehydes to alcohols. As direct CO₂ hydrogenation to olefins as well as aldehyde hydrogenation generally occur at significantly higher temperatures (90–360 °C and 150 to 300 °C, respectively)[259],[278], the lower reaction temperature of olefins hydroformylation (i.e., ~120 °C) makes this tandem process unsuitable for modes ②–⑥ (Fig. 7), but would require a multi-reactor setup (Fig. 7, mode ①) to bridge the temperature differences.

4.4. Combined CO₂ to carboxylic acid and carboxylic acid hydrogenation to alcohols

Carboxylic acids, such as formic and acetic acid, evoke a wide range of applications in various industries [280,281]. Research on CO₂ conversion to carboxylic acids has also been extensively performed. The industrial synthesis of acetic acid typically involves methanol carbonylation based on the Monsanto process (CH₃OH + CO → CH₃COOH) [281]. Currently, various emerging technologies for converting CO₂ into carboxylic acids have been developed [282–289]. For instance, Wang et al. achieved a 9.5% yield of acetic acid at 300 °C and 5 MPa by direct reduction of CO₂ over a specific hexagonal close-packed cobalt (HCP-Co) catalyst obtained by hydrothermal synthesis [290]. The experimental results showed that the CoO/Co⁰ interface formed in situ played a key role in completing the CO₂ activation and realizing the subsequent C-C coupling. Moreover, the unique nature of the hydrothermal reaction can regulate the metal oxides/metals ratio on the catalyst surface, resulting in the formation of a stable CoO/Co interface. Through DFT calculations, the authors proposed a reaction pathway involving *CH₂ and HCOO as intermediates, which then combine to form CH₃COO⁻ through a carbene reaction.

Besides the hydrogenation process, acetic acid can be efficiently synthesized via the reaction of CO₂ with other readily available feedstocks (e.g., methane, methanol). Here, the direct conversion of CO₂ and CH₄ to acetic acid (Eq. 9) is a 100% atom-efficient process. Tu et al. have provided profound insights into this process, suggesting that the C-H bond breaking in CH₄, and the subsequent formation of C-C bonds are crucial for the reaction. Currently, conventional catalysts for this process consist of metals, metal oxides, and metal-modified zeolites [291]. However, the disparity in reaction conditions between different reaction systems is significant, with reaction temperatures ranging from 150 to

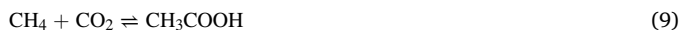
Table 8
Results of ethylene hydroformylation over various Rh catalysts.^a

Catalyst	GHSV (h ⁻¹)	Rh loading (wt%)	Conversion (%)	Selectivity (%)	TOF (h ⁻¹)
Rh/POL-PPh ₃	2000	0.125	96.2	96.1	4530
Rh/POL-PPh ₃	2000	0.063	65.3	96.4	6166
Rh(CO) ₂ (acac)/SiO ₂	2000	0.125	0.6	99.9	30
HRh(CO)(PPh ₃) ₃ /SiO ₂	2000	0.125	22.4	99.5	1091
Rh/POL-PPh ₃	5000	0.125	88.8	95.4	10373
Rh/POL-PPh ₃	5000	0.063	45.5	94.6	10534

^a Reaction conditions: fixed-bed reactor, 120 °C, 1.0 MPa, C₂H₄:CO:H₂ = 1:1:1, GHSV of C₂H₄/CO/H₂ = 2000 h⁻¹.

500 °C and reaction pressures from atmospheric pressure to 2 MPa [292–295]. Rabie et al. achieved the synthesis of acetic acid in a continuous flow microreactor system by simultaneously feeding methane and CO₂ over Cu-loaded M⁺-ZSM-5 catalysts (M=Li⁺, Na⁺, K⁺ and Ca²⁺). The catalytic activity increased in the order K>Na>Ca>Li. Furthermore, the results showed that over Cu⁰-H-ZSM-5 catalysts, M⁺ contributes to the enrichment of surface-active CO₂ in the form of carbonate and subsequently reacts with homolytically activated C-H. At 500 °C and CH₄/CO₂ = 1, the highest acetic acid yield of 395 μmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ was obtained [295]. Moreover, Shavi et al. synthesized montmorillonite (MMT) supported dual active site ZnO-CeO₂/MMT catalyst for the co-conversion of CO₂ and CH₄ to acetic acid. The dual active sites resolved the competitive surface adsorption of the reactant gases and maximized the yield of acetic acid. Accordingly, STY_{acetic acid} of 625 μmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ was achieved at 300 °C and 0.2 MPa. The authors identified the atomic size of the active site as well as the presence of Lewis acid ZnO sites as crucial parameters in the carbonylation reaction of CH₄ [296].

Besides, the reduction of CO₂ by indirect hydrogen has also attracted research interest [297,298]. For example, Sagar et al. synthesized novel Mn-based ZrO₂ catalysts for the hydrogenation of pure CO₂ to formic acid and acetic acid via hydrazine monohydrate as the indirect hydrogen source. The presence of Mn in a lower oxidation state facilitated the decomposition of hydrazine to hydrogen, thus promoting the formation of carboxylic acid. An acetic acid yield of 906 μmol g_{cat}⁻¹ h⁻¹ was achieved at 225 °C and 1 MPa CO₂ [283].



The direct hydrogenation of carboxylic acids to higher alcohols, for example, the hydrogenation of acetic acid to ethanol (Eq.10), promises enormous potential due to a comparably accessible conversion. Commonly used catalysts include noble metal catalysts such as Pd, Pt, and Rh, as well as non-noble metal catalysts such as Cu, Ni, Zn, Cr [299]. Rakshit et al. prepared a series of Pt-Sn catalysts supported on SiO₂-Al₂O₃ for the hydrogenation of acetic acid to ethanol in a fixed-bed reactor. By adjusting the appropriate Pt/Sn ratio, optimal catalytic activity was achieved with 81% acetic acid conversion and 95% ethanol selectivity at 270 °C and 2 MPa [300]. Similarly, Pt-Sn/SiO₂ catalysts prepared by sol-gel method also exhibited excellent activity in a fixed-bed reactor, with 100% acetic acid conversion and 93% ethanol selectivity at 270 °C and 2.6 MPa. The outstanding catalytic performance was attributed to the sol-gel method promoting the synergistic interaction between Pt and Sn, resulting in a balanced effect between the exposed Pt surface and Lewis acid sites [301]. Although noble metal catalysts possess superior catalytic performance for this process, their high-cost limits large-scale applications. Hence, as potential catalytic systems, Cu-based catalysts are investigated and have shown excellent performance in the hydrogenation of acetic acid. Dong et al. investigated the performance of Cu₂In/SBA-15 catalysts for the hydrogenation of acetic acid and found a promotional effect of the Cu₂In alloy for the decomposition of acetic acid, while simultaneously inhibiting the formation of ethyl acetate. The catalyst achieved a 99.1% acetic acid conversion and a 90.9% ethanol selectivity at 350 °C and 2.5 MPa [85]. Further optimizing the catalyst led to Cu-MnO/SBA-15 with enhanced stability for up to 72 h time on stream [302].

In summary, combining CO₂ to carboxylic acid and carboxylic acid hydrogenation to alcohols is currently considered as a double-edged sword. At first sight, the reaction conditions between direct CO₂ hydrogenation to acetic acid and acetic acid hydrogenation to ethanol are reasonably similar as both may occur at temperatures between 250–350 °C, which would allow integrating both reactions in one reactor using integrating mode ②–⑥ (Fig. 7) to enhance heat and mass exchange. However, most direct CO₂ hydrogenation to carboxylic acid experiments are performed in liquid-phase using batch experimental systems under the addition of crucial additives, while others are either

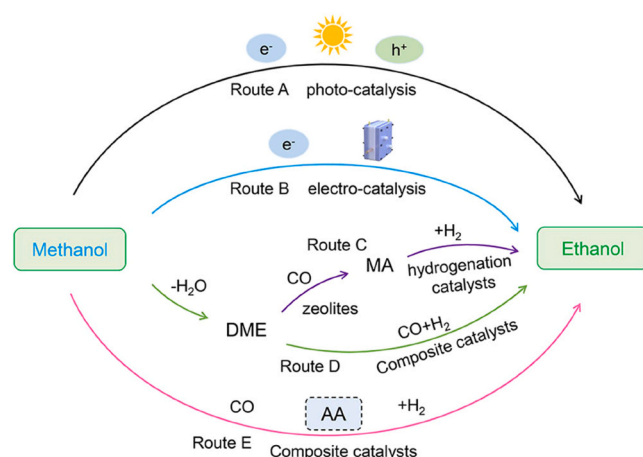
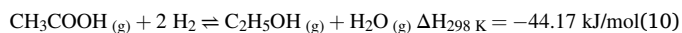


Fig. 20. Typical reaction processes to generate ethanol from methanol. Route A: Photocatalysis; Route B: Electrocatalysis; Routes C–E: thermal-catalysis. Reprinted with permission from Ref.[141].

electrochemically or phototactically catalyzed [282–289]. This impedes a straightforward coupling with the continuously performed carboxylic acid reduction to alcohols. In addition, the processes are at significantly different stages in process maturity. While the latter part of the possible tandem process already reaches outstanding conversion and selectivity over comparably inexpensive catalysts, the conversion of CO₂ to carboxylic acids is clearly the bottleneck of this process. Consequently, further research is necessary to improve current catalyst generations towards higher carboxylic acid yields thus increasing the overall efficiency of the tandem system.



4.5. Methanol to higher alcohols

The industrial-scale synthesis of methanol from CO₂ and H₂ has been achieved through thermal catalysis. Naturally, the conversion of methanol to higher alcohols through a non-olefin synthesis pathway is auspicious. Zhang et al. provided a comprehensive overview of several feasible routes for the conversion of methanol to ethanol (Fig. 20) [141]. Routes A and B in Fig. 20 involve photocatalysis and electrocatalysis, respectively, while routes C–E (Fig. 20) are based on thermal catalysis [303,304]. However, due to a low ethanol yield in photo-electrocatalytic CO₂ reduction, which is currently limited to only laboratory-scale research, thermal catalysis appears to have more sophisticated industrial application prospects. Route C (Fig. 20) involves dimethyl ether and methyl acetate as key intermediates [305]. In this process, methanol is first dehydrated to produce DME, which is then carbonylated to form methyl acetate. Finally, ethanol is produced by hydrogenation of methyl acetate. This pathway typically employs acid zeolite catalysts. It is noteworthy that a DME to HA process using coal derived syngas as feedstocks, based on key intermediates of methyl acetate, has been developed by the Dalian Institute of Chemical Physics and put into production in Shaanxi, China, in 2017, which can achieve an annual production of 100,000 tons of ethanol [306]. However, due to the excessive number of synthesis steps and high energy consumption, route C has been optimized to process D. In route D, DME reacts directly with synthesis gas to generate ethanol. However, current state-of-the-art catalysts generally achieve ethanol selectivity of less than 49% [307–309]. In route E (Fig. 20), methanol also directly reacts with synthesis gas to produce ethanol, but acetic acid is involved as a crucial intermediate.

It is noteworthy that Liu et al. recently achieved a successful cascade

conversion of methanol to higher alcohols at reaction temperatures ranging from 350 to 425 °C, all without the presence of metal catalysts and hydrogen. The process initiates by the reaction of methanol with CaC_2 , leading to the formation of methyl vinyl ether (MVE). Subsequently, MVE undergoes hydrocracking into ethanol through the cleavage of the ether bond on the methyl side. Finally, the interaction between ethanol and methanol gives rise to n-propanol and iso-butanol. Under optimized conditions, HA yield of 54.6% was reached. The authors propose that a solid derivative of CaC_2 , calcium methoxide ($\text{Ca}(\text{OCH}_3)_2$), may play a catalytic role in the dehydrogenation reaction [310]. Besides, Zhang et al. designed a tandem catalytic system using H-MOR-DA@C and Pt-Sn/CNT catalysts for methanol-to-ethanol conversion. This catalyst exhibited strong resistance to ethanol dehydration and achieved a methanol conversion rate of 98% with ethanol selectivity as high as 60% [141]. In summary, the direct synthesis of ethanol from methanol complements the multitude of various processes presented in this review, that are capable of efficiently synthesizing higher alcohols via indirect CO_2 hydrogenation. The high maturity of methanol synthesis from CO_2 hydrogenation coupled with a rather high-efficiency ethanol synthesis from methanol make this tandem catalysis system a promising candidate for higher alcohols synthesis.

5. Conclusion and future perspective

The synthesis of higher alcohols from the conversion of CO_2 is an extremely versatile and future-oriented process. It not only effectively mitigates greenhouse gas emissions, but also converts CO_2 into valuable chemicals and fuels to alleviate the energy crisis. Currently, the direct hydrogenation of CO_2 to higher alcohols faces challenges such as low CO_2 conversion rates, insufficient selectivity towards higher alcohols, and intense competition from side reactions. To address these persistent obstacles, we propose the construction of suitable tandem catalysis systems, which involve two modes: physically mixed, multifunctional catalysts and cascade reactors. The core of the tandem catalytic system lies in utilizing industrially mature or well-developed reaction processes to convert CO_2 and intermediate products, thereby achieving the multi-step synthesis of higher alcohols.

In the previous sections, we introduced the following conversion processes: (a) the "RWGS + syngas conversion" based on CO as a key intermediate; (b) the "olefin synthesis + olefin hydration" based on olefins as key intermediates; (c) the "olefin synthesis + olefin hydroformylation + aldehyde hydrogenation" based on aldehydes as intermediates; as well as (d) other processes based on carboxylic acids, methanol, and other intermediates. CO_2 undergoing these steps to form higher alcohols offers the following advantages: (i) the stability of indirect synthesis intermediates ensures the smooth progression of the tandem reactions compared to one-step synthesis processes; (ii) significant progress has already been made in the aforementioned multi-step processes, thereby enhancing the activation of CO_2 and increasing its

conversion compared to the direct hydrogenation; (iii) since the multi-step tandem process changes the overall reaction mechanism, the competing reactions of the reaction system are well avoided, which enhances selectivity toward higher alcohols; (iv) in designing catalysts for the tandem system, only the rational mixing of various catalysts, selection of reactors, and control of reaction conditions need to be considered, providing a relatively convenient and macroscopic control approach. This eliminates the need for designing catalysts from the nanoscale through extensive characterization, ultimately saving cost and time. Table 9 provides an overview over the advantages/disadvantages of the various pathways.

Although a detailed life cycle analysis, as well as technological readiness level evaluation, are required, in this review, we attempted to evaluate a wide variety of individual chemical processes and their respective potential to synthesize higher alcohols from CO_2 in an integrated tandem catalysis system. However, for tandem catalysis systems to be competitive to the direct hydrogenation of CO_2 to higher alcohols, one must consider a multitude of influential parameters, for example, the technological readiness of the distinctive catalytic steps as well as their potential for efficient coupling process application. Therefore, as shown in Fig. 21, the application potential for the most important tandem catalysis systems for synthesizing higher alcohols from CO_2 is presented. More precisely, to enable a direct comparison, technological compatibility and maturity of the individual reactions are considered as key parameters. For technological compatibility, process parameters, thermodynamic aspects as well as a process-engineering perspective of the individual reactions comprising a tandem catalysis system are compared. This includes, among others, the respective process temperatures and pressures, endo- and exothermicity of reactions, and compatibility of established catalysts. Technological maturity, here, describes the development stage of a catalyst-reaction-combination. It is mainly influenced by catalytic efficiency (i.e. higher alcohols selectivity, substrate conversion), but also by catalyst costs and operational mode (batch/continuous; the use of additives). Based on these findings, each tandem process was rated on a scale of 1–10 in terms of their technological compatibility and maturity, respectively. As the technological compatibility of a tandem process is strongly dependent on the number of process steps, it was normalized to the number of process steps involved. As depicted in Fig. 21, among the various integration alternatives discussed in this review and the evaluation criteria employed, the tandem catalysis systems based on RWGS reaction + Syngas to higher alcohols as well as CO_2 to olefins + olefin hydroformylation + hydrogenation to higher alcohols display the best technological compatibility and process maturity.

However, there are still several challenges to be addressed to achieve satisfactory yields of higher alcohols through indirect conversion of CO_2 via tandem reactions:

Table 9

The advantages/disadvantages of the various pathways.

Reaction combination	Intermediate (s)	Advantages	Disadvantages/challenges
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • RWGS • Syngas conversion • CO_2 hydrogenation to olefins via FTS route • Olefins hydration/hydroformylation • CO_2 to olefins via MS route • Olefins hydration • CO_2 hydrogenation to methanol • Methanol to olefins • Olefins hydration • Other routes 	CO Olefins Methanol Olefins Methanol Olefins Olefins Carboxylic acid Methanol	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High CO_2 conversion • Stable formation of the intermediate CO • Excellent CO_2 activation capability • Easy to regulate reaction conditions • High light olefins selectivity • Excellent inhibition of methanation • The former two reaction processes have progressed significantly • Scheme has potential to be further explored 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Reaction conditions are difficult to modulate • High methanation activity • Conventional FTS struggles to overcome ASF distribution • Low CO_2 conversion • High RWGS activity • Multiple reaction steps and difficulties with tandem connections • Difficulties in reactor design • Lack of number of studies, feasibility needs to be further verified

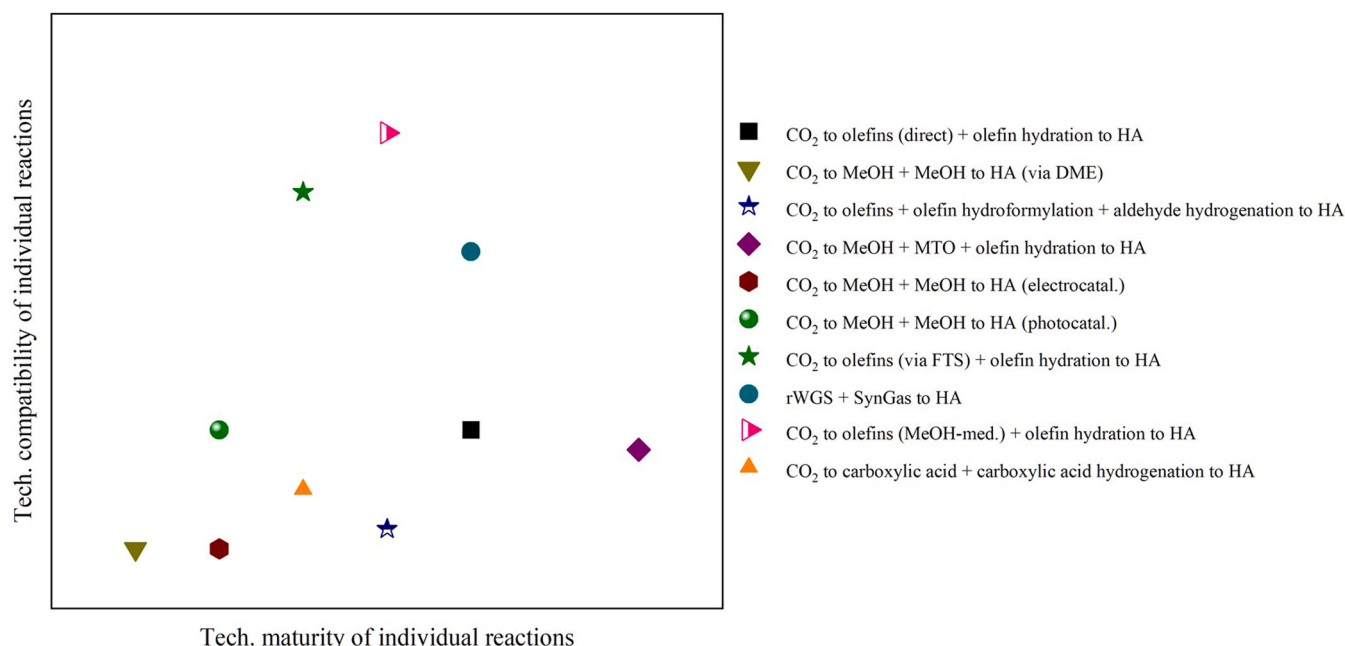


Fig. 21. Technological maturity vs. compatibility of individual reactions for potential tandem catalysis processes.

- Reasonable tandem configurations must be considered. Since the reaction networks of catalysts based on different active components vary, it is crucial to carefully analyze the specific circumstances and determine whether to employ physically mixed catalysts or cascade reactors. If the reaction conditions of the two catalysts are similar, and the interaction between different active components doesn't deteriorate their catalytic activity, a simple and effective approach is to use physical mixing. Here, the performance of different mixing modes needs to be evaluated to identify the optimal blending scheme. However, if the reaction conditions of the two catalysts differ significantly, using physical mixing may result in suboptimal activity. In such cases, employing multistage beds or cascade reactors is more appropriate.
- Catalyst poisoning challenges. In multi-step reactions, numerous byproducts, such as CO or H₂O, are formed in addition to the intermediate required for the subsequent reaction. These byproducts may not affect the catalyst in the first step but can poison the subsequent catalyst in the following steps. Therefore, when designing catalysts, it is essential to consider the tolerance of different catalysts to the potential intermediates that may lead to catalyst poisoning. Separating toxins from the reaction process using membranes or distillation is a feasible strategy. Moreover, the interaction between different active components may also lead to deactivation. Thus, the effects due to the increasing proximity of various catalytical active species should be further investigated.
- Catalyst design challenges. Although many of the mentioned multi-step processes in the previous sections are relatively mature, and other reactions, such as RWGS, synthesis gas conversion, and olefin synthesis, some catalysts still fall short in practical applications due to issues like demanding reaction conditions or low activity. Therefore, further in-depth research on these systems is necessary to enhance the conversion of CO₂ and the synthesis of higher alcohols to a higher level.
- Reactor design issues. Based on the descriptions in the previous chapters, the differences in reaction mechanisms and characteristics have led to variations in reaction conditions and reactor setups for each step of the reaction. Different reactors, such as

fixed-bed, fluidized-bed, and batch reactors, along with significant temperature and pressure variations, pose challenges in constructing tandem reaction systems. Establishing a temperature gradient reaction system is a promising approach, for instance, in the case of RWGS reaction + syngas conversion reactions, which require a temperature reduction in the course of the process. Initially, one reactor stage can carry out the RWGS reaction at 400 to 600 °C, followed by a subsequent reactor stage at 200 to 300 °C for syngas conversion. This design offers the advantage of simultaneously meeting the conditions of both reactions while potentially saving energy consumption.

In summary, the tandem catalytic system concept presented in this review provides a new approach to the synthesis of higher alcohols based on CO₂. Although the conversion of CO₂ to higher alcohols through tandem reactions is still in the experimental research stage, its advantages are expected to outweigh the challenges it faces. We believe that further research on synthesis steps and exploration of catalyst design will mitigate the negative impacts of tandem reactions.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

He Yiming: Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft. **Müller Fabian H.:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft. **Palkovits Regina:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing – review & editing. **Zeng Feng:** Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **Mebratu Chalachew:** Conceptualization, Supervision, Validation, Writing – review & editing.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data Availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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